

"ENGLAND'S HISTORY" SERIES

BOOK III
THE MODERN AGE
(FROM 1702 ONWARDS)

BY
W. B. LITTLE



LONDON
SIR ISAAC PITMAN & SONS, LTD
PITMAN HOUSE, PARKER ST, KINGSWAY, W.C.2
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1937

PREFACE

THE History of Britain is brought down to the present day in the third volume of the series.

Many of the chapters deal with subjects which must be of major importance to boys and girls who will soon enter industry and commercial life.

While the aspects and influences of war have not been omitted, the stress is laid upon social history and civics.

Indications of the way in which the past affects the present are given—"Making all futures, fruits of all the past"—and pupils are shown how they may become students of history and maybe even partakers in it.

W. B. L.

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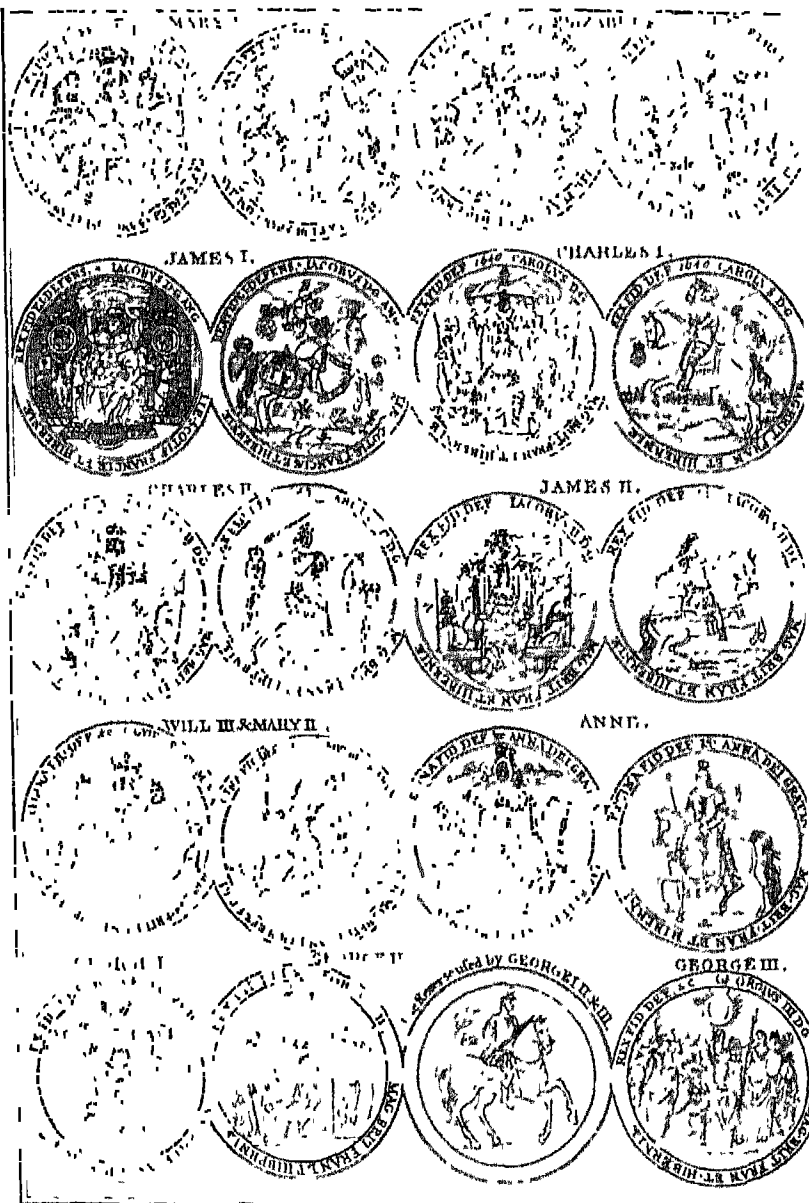
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SOME MORE OF THE GREAT SEALS OF ENGLAND

“ENGLAND’S HISTORY” SERIES

BOOK III

1702

ANNE

1714

War with France		Treaty of Utrecht 1713
Marlborough	Union of	
Blenheim, 1704	England and Scotland	
Capture of Gibraltar, 1704	1707	
Ramilles, 1706	(Great Britain	
Oudenarde, 1708	founded)	
Malplaquet, 1709		
Louis XIV King of France		

1. THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY OPENS

IN 1702 Anne became Queen of England in succession to William III. A new century had opened, and it was to prove a century of great events.

Anne was a sister of Mary, the wife of William III. She was born in London on 6th February, 1665, and when she was eighteen married Prince George of Denmark. When William of Orange landed in England, Anne deserted her father's cause and went over to the side of her sister's husband. She was influenced in this by the fact that she was a zealous protestant.

No one would call Anne an attractive or a highly intelligent woman. She was in poor health for a great part of her reign and was too much influenced by her women friends. Anne was a firm supporter of the Church of England. Her

name is often mentioned to-day in connection with what is known as *Queen Anne's Bounty*. A part of the income of clergymen was once paid to the Crown, but in 1704 Anne transferred this money to the Church. The money from this source is still used to improve the yearly income of

clergymen whose "livings" are not worth a great deal.

In the reign of Anne three outstanding features may be mentioned—

(a) The success of the armed forces under Marlborough.

(b) The Union of Scotland with England.

(c) The valuable books which were written.

(a) THE SUCCESS OF THE ARMY. John Churchill, born 24th June, 1650, became one of the most brilliant soldiers in our history.



SARAH CHURCHILL (JENNINGS)

*By courtesy of the Director and Secretary,
Victoria and Albert Museum*

He had served in the Army during the reign of James II, reaching a high command, but deserted to the army of William of Orange when the latter landed in Devonshire. John Churchill already held the title of Lord Churchill by this time, but William created him Duke of Marlborough. Marlborough showed his ability as a leader at the Battle of the Boyne and then was left in charge of the troops in Ireland. For a period William and Marlborough were not on good terms, for the king suspected that his general might be plotting with James II. When, however, Mary

the Queen died the two became friends again. At this time the Princess Anne's greatest friend was the Duchess of Marlborough, and in private conversation they addressed each other as "Mrs. Morley" and "Mrs. Freeman." When war with France seemed about to break out, William appointed Marlborough as his deputy to command the Dutch and English troops.

In 1702 war with France was declared. In history this war is known as *The War of the Spanish Succession*. As you can guess, it was a war about who should succeed to the throne of Spain. This was not of much concern to England, but as the French king always supported James II and declared that he was the real king of England, there is no wonder that William III should decide to take the part of Spain.

Just as war was declared, William III died and Anne came to the throne. It might almost be said, however, that Marlborough was the real ruler of the country, for he commanded the Army, influenced Parliament, and his wife was the closest friend of the new queen.

The war was conducted in many European countries—Italy, Spain, Germany, but mostly in Flanders, that low-lying part of Belgium which has been aptly called the "cockpit of Europe." Remember that, in earlier years, Protestant and Catholic had fought in Flanders; Wellington, a hundred years after Marlborough, fought Napoleon over the same ground; and some of the bitterest fighting of the Great War of 1914–18 took place in the same area.

Marlborough fought a most successful campaign. This was due to his personal bravery, his skill as a leader, and his care for the troops under his charge. Though a very strict soldier, Marlborough always saw that as far as possible his troops were properly fed, regularly paid, and generally treated well.

One of the allies was Austria. On the 13th August, 1704,

Marlborough heavily defeated the French at the Battle of Blenheim, though his troops were outnumbered, and the Austrian capital was saved from the enemy. The news reached England scribbled on a bit of scrap paper. A thanksgiving service was held in St. Paul's Cathedral, a large estate at Woodstock in Oxfordshire was presented to the victorious general, and the Palace of Blenheim was built upon it for his use. (The present Duke of Marlborough lives at Blenheim Palace to-day. It stands in 2503 acres of land and cost originally £500,000 to build.)

For six long years Marlborough fought on against many difficulties, winning battles at Ramillies, 1706, Oudenarde, 1708, and Malplaquet, 1709. During the progress of war on land the fleet, under Admiral Rooke, was busy as well, capturing in 1704 the rock of Gibraltar which commands the entrance to the Mediterranean Sea.

The war was brought to a close in 1713 when the Treaty of Utrecht was signed. France was beaten. The treaty gave to England—

- (a) Gibraltar
- (b) Newfoundland, which had originally been discovered by Cabot
- (c) Nova Scotia, part of the eastern coast of Canada.
- (d) Minorca, an island in the Mediterranean.
- (e) St. Christopher (sometimes called St. Kitts), an island in the West Indies.
- (f) The monopoly of the slave trade and the right to send *one* ship yearly to trade with the Spanish colonies.

After the war Marlborough was in some disgrace. This was partly due to the fact that the Queen and the Duchess had quarrelled, and also because men were jealous of his great success. History, however, must record the splendid qualities of generalship and statemanship of a great man.

The war with France was over—for a time. Before many years, England and France were to contest for the great

lands of America and India, a war fought largely on the high seas

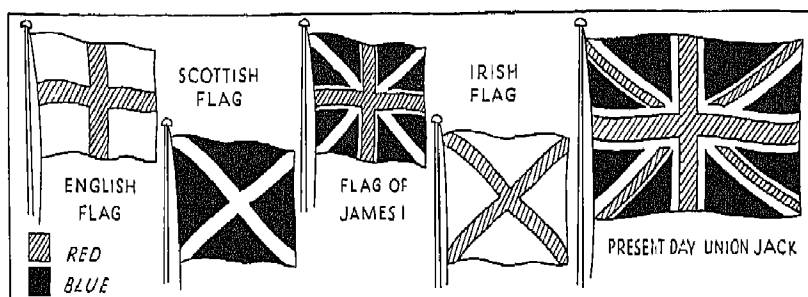
(b) UNION OF ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND. Though from the time of James I to that of William III England and Scotland had had the same sovereign, they had *separate Parliaments*, and in practically all things had been ruled as two separate countries. Each people was suspicious of the other and watched to see that its rival did not win advantages. (It is well to remember that for hundreds of years before 1603 the relations between England and Scotland had generally been unfriendly.) Now the Scots were afraid that, if the governments were united, an attack might be made upon their Presbyterian form of Church government, or that they would be heavily taxed to pay English debts. The Scots complained too that under the *Navigation Acts* they were not allowed to trade freely with English colonies. On the other hand, the English did not want the two crowns separated again, yet they knew that the Scots were loyal to the Stuarts. William III saw that the only way to make peace was to unite the Parliaments. He ordered terms for such a union to be drawn up, but neither side seemed anxious to arrange it. The Scots were angry because their attempt to colonize Darien on the Isthmus of Panama failed, no help being given by the English government or merchants. When William died, the Scots were still more angry that Anne's successor to the throne should be announced without consulting the Scottish Parliament. War almost seemed likely, for feeling ran high on both sides, but at last terms for the Union were arranged.

In the year 1707 the ACT OF UNION actually became law, and here is a brief summary of the terms agreed upon -

(a) Scotland and England were to be united and become *Great Britain* with one sovereign and one Parliament which was to meet at Westminster. Forty-five members for Scotland were to sit in the Commons and sixteen peers were to

be elected at each General Election to sit in the House of Lords to represent Scotland.

(b) The Scottish system of Church government—Presbyterianism—was to be unaltered and the Scottish law



system was to remain. (Notice there are separate law officers in Scotland to this day)

(c) England agreed to make a grant of £398,000 to Scotland to pay off the Scottish National Debt and to help those who had lost money in the Darien Scheme

(d) Full privileges of trade similar to those enjoyed by Englishmen with the colonies were to be given to Scotsmen.

The arrangement soon proved itself to be a good one. Though the Scots were not a rich people and benefited from the Union with the wealthier England, they brought gifts of leadership, industry, zeal and love for education to the common government. Friendship between the two peoples grew and flourished.

2. WRITERS IN THE REIGN OF QUEEN ANNE

THERE were important authors, about which you should know something, living and writing during the reign of Queen Anne.

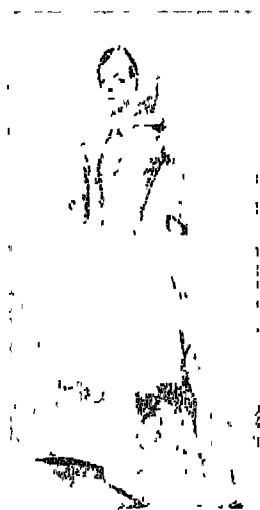
The remarkable DEAN SWIFT is well known for the great number of letters and pamphlets which he wrote, and most children have read his *Gulliver's Travels* which was issued in 1726. This book was the only one for which he received payment, and most of his writings were written anonymously.

In 1706 JOHN EVELYN died. His *Diary* gives a very good account of the times in which he lived. Here is an extract (26th May, 1703) telling of the death of another well-known diarist, Samuel Pepys—

This day died Mr Sam Pepys, a very worthy, industrious and curious person, none in England exceeding him in knowledge of the Navy, in which he had passed through all the most considerable offices (Clerk of the Acts, and Secretary of the Admiralty), all which he performed with great integrity. He was universally beloved, hospitable, generous, learned in many things, skilled in music, a very great cherisher of learned men.

Evelyn was 46 years of age when the Great Plague and Fire of London took place, and these he describes vividly in his *Diary*.

DANIEL DEFOE, another famous author who was born in



DOLL OF THE PERIOD
OF QUEEN ANNE

*By courtesy of the Director and
Secretary, Victoria and Albert
Museum*

1659 and died in 1731, wrote about the Great Plague in his *Journal of the Plague Year*. As he was only six years old at the time he had to collect all his information, yet his book gives the impression that he was an eye witness. Defoe wrote nearly four hundred books and pamphlets and he had an adventurous life. He died in 1731 and was buried in Bunhill Fields, London. There in 1870 an obelisk was erected to his memory from money given by boys and girls who had enjoyed his book *Robinson Crusoe*, which is, of course, his most famous work.

JOSEPH ADDISON (1672-1719) was asked to write a poem in celebration of the Battle of Blenheim. This poem, *The Campaign*, 1704, is not very well known. Addison also wrote for the famous papers *The Tatler* and *The Spectator*, and many of his essays are still read. "Sir Roger de Coverley" was one of the famous characters he created.

ALEXANDER POPE (1688-1744) was a poet and writer who translated the epic poems of Homer, the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, and produced some famous poems in rhymed couplets, such as the *Essay on Man*. His great hobby was landscape gardening, and at his riverside villa at Twickenham, where he lived with his mother, he entertained his literary friends. This verse of his is often quoted --

Happy the man, whose wish and care
A few paternal acres bound,
Content to breathe his native air
In his own ground.

EXERCISES

- 1 How was it that Anne was made queen of England?
- 2 Why do you think Anne and the Duchess of Marlborough called one another "Mrs Morley" and "Mrs Freeman."
- 3 Find out all you can about Queen Anne's Bounty (*Whitaker's Almanack* will help you).

4 Why can Marlborough be considered a great soldier? (Mr. Winston Churchill, a descendant of Marlborough, has written a fine book about this hero.)

5 Draw a map of Flanders and show the places where battles have been fought. Notice the lowlands of Holland and parts of Belgium. What advantages were to be gained by fighting in the plains? What were the disadvantages?

6. Why would it be wrong to write about "Great Britain" before 1707? Find out in what ways England and Scotland differ in laws and government to-day.

7 Why did the Scots generally favour the Stuarts? Why did the French also support them?

8 Find on a map of the world the places gained by Great Britain in the Treaty of Utrecht.

9 Find out all you can about the slave trade. Look up John Hawkins in the reign of Elizabeth and Wilberforce in the reign of George III (see Chapter 22).

10 Write out in your note-book short quotations from the works of Defoe, Swift, Pope, Addison, and Evelyn.

3. DIFFERENCE OF OPINION

Two men once owned a business, and they agreed it would be useful if they bought a motor to help them in their work. One said, "I think it would be best to buy a light van to take out the goods. We could paint the name of our firm on the side, and it would look very smart." The other said, "I don't agree. If we buy an ordinary motor car we can not only deliver the goods but we can take our wives and families out for drives." They argued about this for some time when along came a friend of theirs, who had lent them some money, and they asked his opinion. He said, "I think I should buy a light van first, work hard at your business, and then perhaps you will be able to buy a car for pleasure later." Here we have two men who were both certain their own ideas were good—there was a difference of opinion about it. Some people could agree with one and some with the other.

In more serious affairs, we may have a great body of people divided between two opinions as to how some difficulty should be met, or problem solved; and one of the questions which has caused most disputes throughout history is that of *how a country should be governed*.

Long ago, when people lived in tribes, the *chief* generally decided what was to be done and nobody else was allowed to express an opinion. Even to-day, in some countries, the way in which a country shall be ruled is laid down by a *dictator* and nobody must question what he says.

In Great Britain and many other lands the ordinary man and woman can have a voice in the government of their country. They do this by *voting* for a man or woman to represent them in Parliament.

Men and women are chosen to sit in Parliament (and on

all kinds of Committees) at *Elections*, when the voters choose their representatives. Every one is not agreed that there is *one best* way to govern a country, or that one set of men and women are the best people to rule, for if this were so, there would be no need to have elections. This explains how we come to have the various *political parties* whose leaders and candidates declare their points of view at election time. The principal British parties are the CONSERVATIVE party, the SOCIALIST party, and the LIBERAL party. When one party has a *majority* of members in a Parliament or Committee, it endeavours to rule according to its own ideas.

You will learn more about political parties later. (The word *political* is from a Greek word meaning "of, or pertaining to, a citizen" and thus a political party is a body of people who hold ideas about the best way in which a city or a state should be ruled.)

When we study the history of England in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries we begin to notice the importance of political parties, and it may help you to understand the history of the times better if you realize that there were then *two* chief parties, (*a*) the *TORIES* and (*b*) the *WHIGS*, each of which thought its way of government was the true one and the best for the country.

The word *Tory* was derived originally from an old Irish word meaning "Come, O King," and the name was given to those in Ireland who supported Charles I and Charles II. One day a member of the Commons shouted this nickname at an opponent in the House. When, in 1688, James II was dethroned, those who were loyal to him and wished for his return were named *Tories*. It was this party that wanted the Stuarts back when Anne died.

The other party, the *Whigs*, received its name from a term applied to the Scottish Covenanters about 1679. This party believed that it would be folly to have the Stuarts

back again and they wished for Protestants to be kings of England. In a way we might compare these early Tories with Cavaliers and the Whigs with the Roundheads. It should be remembered that all four names were used originally as mocking nicknames and that later they became the customary names of great parties.

As you read history you will be interested to note which *party* was in power at a particular period and how it influenced the course of action taken by the government.

EXERCISES

- 1 Why do you think that the head of a Government is called a *Prime Minister*?
- 2 Read Chapter 20
- 3 What are the political parties to-day?
- 4 How does a Coalition or a National Government differ from the usual form of Party Government?

Riot Act 1715	South Sea Bubble 1720
Septennial Act 1716	Walpole Prime Minister 1721
1715 'Fifteen rebellion	

4. A KING FROM HANOVER

IN the last chapter it was shown why there are different *parties* in the state. It may be asked why such parties were not so important in the earlier days of English history. The answer is of course that *kings* had taken a more active part in the government of the country. Think of the way in which William I, Richard I, Edward I, and Edward III all led their troops into battle, and how Henry VII kept the barons in order. Elizabeth had been a real queen. James I had a great deal to say about government, and Charles I had ruled without Parliament, finally angering his people till they had him beheaded. William III was a foreigner but a clever soldier and statesman. Anne had had the advantage of the aid and skill of the great Marlborough. When Anne died in 1714 a new King, George I, came to the throne who was handicapped as a leader and statesman by his lack of knowledge of the country he was now to govern.

ACT OF SETTLEMENT, 1701. In the reign of William III the Princess Anne had one surviving son, the Duke of Gloucester. When he died, Parliament thought it necessary to put it beyond doubt who should be the sovereign at the death of William.

Therefore the Act of Settlement was passed and, by this, Princess Anne, the next Protestant heir, was to become queen. On her death the Electress Sophia of Hanover was to succeed her. This lady was the granddaughter of James I and a Protestant. There were quite a dozen people who

had more right by birth than the Electress, but *parliament chose her* (compare with what the old Witenagemots did). But Sophia died on 8th June, 1714, only a few weeks before Anne. Thus her right to the Crown of Great Britain was passed on to her eldest son *George*, who had been Elector and King of Hanover since 1698



KING GEORGE I

*By courtesy of the Director and
Secretary, Victoria and Albert
Museum*

George I, as he was now known, became King of England in 1714 when fifty-four years of age. He was the ruler of a German state which at that time was quite important. As a young man he had lived a gay life and had served in his father's army against the French. But he could not speak a word of English. Imagine the difficulties which faced him when called suddenly from Germany to rule over Great Britain. No wonder he was unpopular and spent much of his time in Hanover. George I, how-

ever, had some good qualities; he loved his friends, treated his enemies kindly, and did his work as a British king with method.

He had sense enough to know that his best plan would be to *trust his ministers* in Parliament and let them rule the country in practice. In the reigns of William and Anne the Government had been carried on largely by men of both the Whig and Tory parties, but George I asked the WHIGS to form a Government, since the Tories had been scheming with the Jacobites towards the end of Anne's reign. From the time of George I we may date the growth of real *party government*.

SIR ROBERT WALPOLE. The great adviser of George I and of George II also was Sir Robert Walpole. He was born

26th August, 1676, and educated at Cambridge. His father had large estates in Norfolk which Walpole inherited. Walpole might thus be described as a country squire, a gentleman who lived on his estate, hunted, ruled his servants and understood farming. He was a clever man, rough-and-ready it is true, but able to judge the value of men and to get his own way. When Walpole entered Parliament in 1701 he soon won friends, for the members saw he was an able man.

When George I came to the throne Walpole became the chief Minister. Now George could speak no English and Walpole could speak no German. So they had to talk together in Latin, and both had forgotten most of the Latin they had learnt at school.

THE FIRST PRIME MINISTER. The Head of the British Government to-day is known as the *Prime Minister*. He must be a Member of Parliament and the head of the political party in power. The Prime Minister has great power in the country for he selects the Ministers who form the Government, advises the King when to dissolve Parliament, and directs the government of the realm.

Sir Robert Walpole is generally looked upon as the first Prime Minister. George I used to attend the meetings of his Ministers or advisers, though it was of little use as he understood no English. Hence the real government of the country was carried on by the Ministers, the leader of whom was the Prime Minister and the meeting of the Ministers was known as the **CABINET**. (The word *Cabinet* really means "little cabin," that is, a small room. The term came to be applied to the meeting of those Ministers who met in private.)

EXERCISES

- 1 Which rulers of England do you think were strong leaders and which incapable?
- 2 Find the differences in meaning between the following words

and try to find an example of each from history: Emperor, King, president, dictator, ruler, potentate, autocrat, protector, despot, tyrant.

3. Why did party government become more important when George I came to the throne?

4. Find out all you can about Sir Robert Walpole from an encyclopedia

5. THE " 'FIFTEEN " AND THE " 'FORTY-FIVE "

THESE names stand for two Jacobite rebellions which broke out, the first in 1715 and the second in 1745. Both had for their purpose an attempt to bring the Stuarts back as kings of England. Both started in Scotland, where the Highlanders were loyal to the Stuarts, and neither was successful. The first, in 1715, was begun with a small body of followers by the Earl of Mar before his allies were ready, and the Battle of Sheriffmuir quickly ended the rising.

Thirty years later another attempt was made. People, however, had got used to the rule of the Georges by this time, and few Englishmen really wanted the Stuarts back. The leader was known as Bonnie Prince Charlie, a goodlooking, pleasant young man and a keen soldier. He was also called the Young Pretender, and his father, who would have been James III had he been king, was called the Old Pretender.

Prince Charles soon gathered the Highland clans around him. He defeated the British troops at Prestonpans and advanced into England. The English would not join him and though with Lord George Murray as commander-in-chief he advanced as far south as Derby, his army was hemmed in by Government troops and he had to retreat to Scotland. He could not gain his ambition now and finally at Culloden, near Inverness, the Highlanders were defeated.

Bonnie Prince Charlie escaped and after five months' wandering in disguise he managed, with the aid of Flora



SOLDIER OF
PERIOD

24 THE "FIFTEEN" AND THE "FORTY-FIVE"

Macdonald, to take ship for France. The Highlanders were now brought more closely under the law. Later the Government won their allegiance by forming special Highland regiments officered by their own chiefs and wearing the kilt as their fathers had done before them.

EXERCISES

1. Why did these rebellions fail?
2. Who was "Bonnie Prince Charlie"?

6. MONEY

HAVE you ever thought where the Government of a country obtains the money to pay its soldiers and sailors, to build ships and provide guns, to maintain schools and all the other institutions formed in a country? The money received by the nation is called its *revenue*. The House of Commons has the power to raise money by taxing goods which come into the country and are bought and sold. Kings and Parliaments have always found it difficult to obtain money. It is just as hard for them to get it to-day.

You will remember that the Bank of England had been founded by William III in 1694. People lent money to the Government, just as they do to-day, and *interest* was paid on it. To-day people invest money with the Government or trading companies so that it may bring them in a regular yearly income. Now it is evidently better to lend one's money to a "safe" company and be certain of yearly interest, even if it is not very high, than to lend it to a company which may pay a high rate of interest for a year or two and then fail, for then the money lent would all be lost.

In 1711 a group of Tories thought they would like to form a company that would be as powerful as the Bank of England which was managed chiefly by Whigs. So the SOUTH SEA COMPANY was started to trade mainly in Spanish South America. The Government granted the company certain rights and, in exchange, the company took over £9,000,000 of the National Debt. Eight years later the company offered to take over the whole National Debt.

People were told that those who held shares in the company would receive a very high rate of interest. All might have been well if *only* the South Sea Company had been formed, but men, not always truthful and honest, started

other trading companies and promised that fortunes should be made quickly. All the shares in the South Sea Company had been sold. No one would sell their shares except at a very high price, but other people still wished to invest money. The most unlikely companies were started—one to turn lead to silver, another to make salt water fresh, whilst a third was to carry out "a certain design which will hereafter be promulgated." Yet people did not think carefully of what they were doing and paid out their money, hoping for large profits.

Then one day it was discovered that a great many of the companies were frauds and that many shares were worth practically nothing. Everybody now tried to sell their shares to someone else for whatever they could get for them.

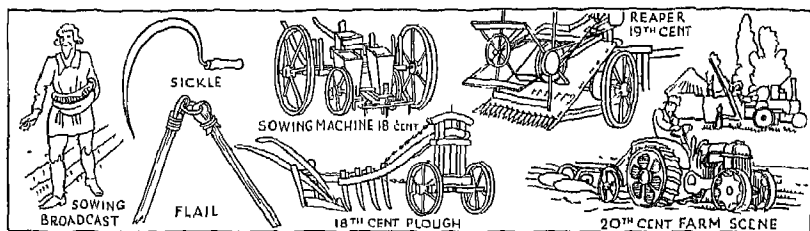
The £100 shares of the South Sea Company at one time could only be bought for £1000, but when people saw that the promises made by this powerful company could not be kept there was a great rush to sell these shares too. Then there was a panic, and those who had bought the shares at a high price lost practically all their money. The public cried for vengeance, and wanted to throw the directors into the river. In the event they were either imprisoned, resigned or died, and Walpole was asked to take charge of the Government.

The South Sea Company and its fall has often been spoken as the "South Sea Bubble." People had been deceived, and the bubble of promised riches had burst. It took Walpole a long time to straighten out the money matters of the country. He arranged for the Government to take over the National Debt again and to guarantee the interest. Ever since Walpole's day the Government has kept such matters in its own hands. "As safe as the Bank of England" is now a common saying. To lend money to the Government means that the money is safe. The progress of Great Britain was very largely due to the fact that

Walpole made people trust the Government and be willing to lend it money. He also lowered taxes and "excise" duties on goods so that trade was encouraged.

EXERCISES

- 1 Why do people want to lend their money out at interest?
- 2 Look at the Money Page of a newspaper, find the names of Government stock and other shares. Get your teacher to explain the facts you find there.
- 3 Work out in your arithmetic lessons the actual rate of interest received. Try to discover why a lower rate of interest is usually paid on Government stock than on money lent to private companies.



7. FARMING

IN order to live man must have *food*. Early man hunted wild beasts, later he maintained herds of cattle and flocks of sheep. His vegetable food he took from the fields, forests, and hill-sides. Later still he learned to settle in one place and cultivate crops for its use. A tribe or country may win a war by starving its enemies. Men and women will adventure and suffer hardship to obtain food.



For hundreds, perhaps thousands of years the people of a tribe, clan, or manor worked to produce enough food for its own needs. None was ever sold or bartered.

In an earlier book we studied methods of farming in England and we have seen that the Black Death killed off so many people that large areas of land were left unpopulated, and for almost the first time in English history we find large sheep farms being set up. Wool was increasing rapidly in price, and large profits were made from its sale.

During Tudor times the idea of enclosing fields went a step further. Instead of enclosing farms for sheep rearing only, the practice of having mixed farms began. The farmer would have a number of enclosed fields or "closes" (note

the meaning of the word), and we might indicate this method of farming in a diagram—

Close 1	Close 2	Close 3
<i>wheat</i>	<i>barley</i>	<i>fallow</i>

The old three-field system.

Close 4	Close 5	Close 6
Pasture	Meadow	Pasture
<i>sheep</i>	<i>hay</i>	<i>cows</i>

In the winter the sheep and cattle could graze over the three arable fields. At intervals of several years the pasture was ploughed up and the arable fields were put down to grass. This was an advantage, as the new arable land had been well manured. But there was a disadvantage. When land was fenced or enclosed for mixed farming it could be cultivated with less labour. Thus many people were thrown out of work. In Queen Elizabeth's reign in 1597, an Act was passed decreeing that all land converted into pasture-land since the beginning of her reign should be reconverted to arable land again.

Farming was carried on through hundreds, probably thousands of years on the old simple system of ploughing, sowing, reaping, manuring by turning cattle on the land and by leaving the field fallow. From Tudor times, when books were more commonly printed, men were trying to find better methods to get regular crops year after year from the same piece of land. Here are some of the books that were written: (a) *The Book of Husbandry*, written by Fitzherbert in Henry VIII's reign. (b) *The Book of Surveying and Improvements* by the same author, published in 1523. These books described ploughing and general farm work but also gave the uses of marl and lime. (c) *Five Hundred Points in Husbandry*, published 1562, by Thomas Tusser. This book was written in verse and contained hints

Agriculture

(or tilling the soil)

Extensive
Land used only once
Nomads and tribes
with large land areas
can do this

Intensive
(One area cultivated
year after year)

Open Fields

Enclosures
(a) Chiefly for sheep

(A) 2 Field System

(1) Wheat
or rye
(growing
and
cut)

(2) Wheat
or rye
(ploughed
left
fallow
and
sown)

(B) 3 Field System

(1) Wheat

(2) Bailey

(3) Fallow

Manorial System
(See Book I)

(b) Enclosures for
Convertible husbandry

land used alternately for
pasture and tillage

not only for the farmer but also for the housewife (*d*) *Discourse on the Husbandry of Brabant and Flanders*, written by Sir Richard Weston who in 1645 introduced Red Clover as a farm crop into England. The Dutch had long known the advantages of winter roots and clover as fodder. (*e*) *The Improver Improved*, by Blythe, published during the Commonwealth, contained the first mention of turnips as a field crop and food for cattle.

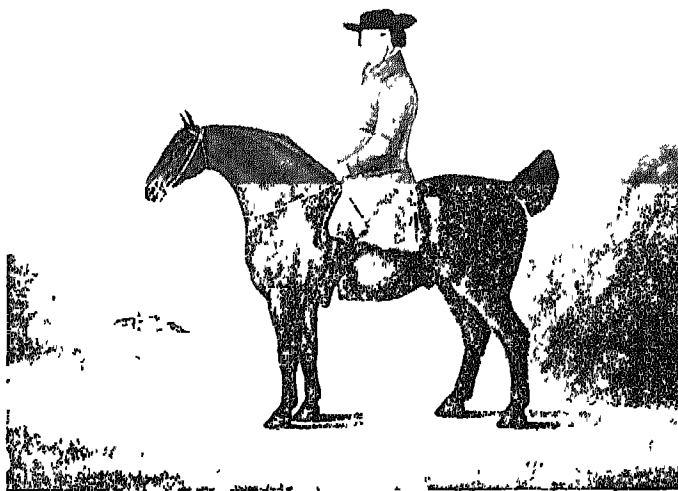
With the eighteenth century, improvements on the farm became rapid and the methods were so different that it is usual to speak of the *Agricultural Revolution*. The changes were largely due to the work of a few very keen men of whom the following may be mentioned —

JETHRO TULL. Tull was born at Basildon in Berkshire in 1674. He was educated at Oxford and trained as a lawyer, but he gave his time to farming, taking land at Wallingford when he was 25. Here in 1701 he invented a machine for sowing seeds in rows. He arranged to sow the seeds far enough apart to allow of the passage of a plough or hoe between the plants as they grew. The ground could be kept clear of weeds as the crop grew, and there was not so much need of a “fallow” year. Tull believed in hoeing the land often and regularly, yet he did not know why this benefited the crops. His system of agriculture is described in his book *Horse-hoe Husbandry*, published in 1731.

CHARLES, 2ND VISCOUNT TOWNSHEND, was a prominent statesman in the reigns of Anne, George I, and George II, but he was also a noted agriculturist. Owing to a quarrel with the great Walpole in 1730, Townshend retired to Norfolk and took up farming. He enclosed his farm, made roads, planted hedges, and worked out a new rotation of crops, which was—

1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year
<i>roots</i>	<i>barley</i>	<i>clover</i>	<i>wheat</i>

The root crop introduced by Townshend was *turnips*, and for this the statesman is often known as "Turnip" Townshend. (Note that there is no fallow year.) The clover provides valuable plant food (nitrogen) which it can



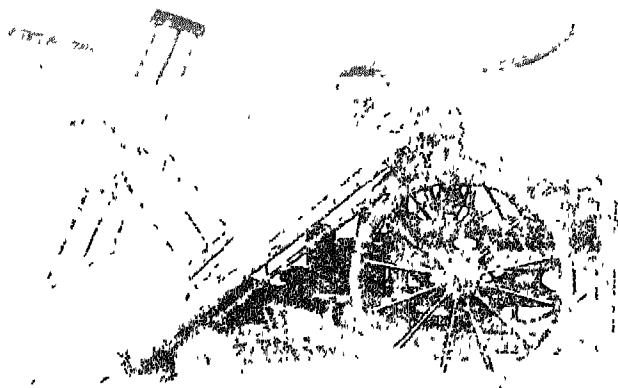
ROBERT BAKEWELL

take from the air and leave in the soil. This *New Norfolk rotation* of crops made great improvements possible in agriculture and made it a more profitable industry.

ROBERT BAKEWELL lived a little later than the two previous pioneers, for he was born in Leicestershire in 1725 and died seventy years later. He is famous for his experiments in *breeding sheep and cattle*. A greater demand for meat as food began to arise as the population increased. By carefully choosing the parent sheep and cattle he bred animals more than double the weight of the old breed. His Leicestershire and Dishley sheep, famous both for wool and mutton, became well known and were sold for hundreds of pounds for breeding purposes. Bakewell also taught

farmers how to irrigate their fields and grow good grass crops to feed their beasts

Late in the century ARTHUR YOUNG wrote books about the new methods and set out on journeys all over the



BELL'S REAPING MACHINE, 1826

From an exhibit in the Science Museum, South Kensington

country, talking with the farmers he met and explaining to them the improvements they might adopt.

EXERCISES

1. What is the difference between extensive and intensive farming? Where might extensive farming be practised to-day?
2. How did the Manor differ in its farming methods from those on a Canadian ranch to-day?
3. What is the difference between "growing for home needs" and "growing for the markets"?
4. Discover what rotation of crops is practised on a farm to-day

PEACE OF UTRECHT

1713

Philip of France made King of Spain (i.e. Crowns of France and Spain never to be united)

Austria given NETHERLANDS

MILAN, SARDINIA, NAPLES

Spain kept her Colonies.

England received GIBRALTAR

MINORCA

NOVA SCOTIA, Canada

ST CHRISTOPHER, West Indies

English rights acknowledged in

(a) NEWFOUNDLAND	} Canada
(b) HUDSON BAY	

English given (a) Control of slave trade,

(b) Trading rights in South America.

Wesley and Methodists 1730	War with Spain 1739	Change in Calendar 1752	
Dettingen 1743	Forty-five rebellion 1745	Seven Years War 1756	Quebec 1759
	Culloden 1746	Plassey 1757	

8. WAR AGAIN THREATENED

GEORGE I, when travelling on his annual journey to Hanover, fell suddenly ill and died in 1727. When the news reached England the Prince of Wales was crowned as George II, without much mourning for the dead king. Father and son had never been friends, and on his accession George II wished to get rid of Walpole. Now George II had a remarkable wife, Caroline of Anspach, clever and tactful, and she pointed out to the king that it would be foolish to fall out with the Prime Minister. For practically ten years, therefore, from 1727 to 1737, it was Walpole and Queen Caroline who ruled the country. There were many disagreements with the Scots over the taxing of wine and spirits, and with the Irish because they were refused the right to mint their own money, but during this period Britain had peace, whilst wars were continually taking place on the Continent. Walpole said once, "Fifty thousand men killed in the year in Europe, and not one Englishman."

But war was not far away when Caroline died in 1737. When nations are heavily defeated in a war they are not usually satisfied until, grown strong again, they endeavour to take their revenge.

The Treaty of Utrecht had weighed heavily against France and Spain. France had kept the treaty, but Spain had been endeavouring to change the situation caused by it.

She had been checked, for in 1718 Admiral Byng had destroyed a Spanish fleet which was attempting to take Sicily; therefore, in 1728, Spain joined with Austria hoping to raise forces to regain MINORCA and GIBRALTAR. Britain had countered this by making an alliance with France. (Note how in these present days agreements and counter-agreements are made. They are often called *pacts*.)

Then came trouble over trade in South America. Under the Treaty of Utrecht one British ship was allowed to go annually to South America to trade. By a simple trick this trade was extended. The ship would load up in the daytime and at night would empty its cargo into little boats which took it off to other British ships. Thus the one ship was filled and re-filled.

This made the Spaniards very angry; as did the activities of dozens of smugglers. The Spaniards lay in wait for the British seamen who trespassed on their trade and, when any were caught, treated them most cruelly. Then came the famous case of *Captain Jenkins' Ear*. Jenkins produced in the House of Commons an ear which, he swore had been cut off by a Spanish captain, and he called upon his countrymen to revenge this act of brutality. People everywhere demanded war with Spain. Walpole wanted no war. he feared that France would join with Spain and so the struggle would spread. At length, however, he had to give way. When it was known that war was declared, many people rang peals of bells in their joy. At this, Walpole said, "They are ringing their bells now, but soon they will be wringing their hands." The war opened well with success against Spain. In 1739 Admiral Vernon captured Porto Bello, but other attacks failed and people realized they had a serious task in front of them.

In 1740 the war cloud grew larger and a new struggle began. Charles VI of Austria wished his only child, MARIA THERESA, to have his kingdom at his death, though usually

a woman could not inherit a crown. When, therefore, Charles died in 1740, Maria ascended the throne of her father: but the Elector of Bavaria immediately claimed Austria, while Frederick the Great of Prussia seized Silesia which belonged to Austria. France supported the Elector of Bavaria.

Thus we get—

Bavaria
AUSTRIA *v.* *Prussia*
France

England decided to help the Empress not only as an act of chivalry but because Hanover, George II's native land, had always been friendly with the Hapsburgs, the royal house of Austria (you will hear of this family again later).

Though English and Hanoverian soldiers under a British commander and in the presence of the King, George II (who himself fought bravely), won a lucky victory at Dettingen in 1743, war was not actually declared upon France until 1744. Walpole retired in 1742. The Stuart "Forty-five" rebellion described earlier followed naturally on the declaration of war with France. (Look back over the story of England to see in how many cases France aided Scotland as part of her plan to attack England). That rebellion, as we have read, was unsuccessful, but it had one result on the Continent: the British troops were wanted at home. This left the French with much less opposition, and their troops marched into that part of the Netherlands which belonged to Austria. When the Pretender was defeated, British troops returned to the struggle on the Continent, but to no purpose; and before long the war was brought to a close by the *Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle* (1748), by which Maria Theresa was allowed to retain the Austrian throne, though Frederick of Prussia kept Silesia. The more serious problem

—the rivalry of France and England—this treaty did nothing to settle, and before ten years were out this struggle was to be renewed in earnest.

EXERCISES

- 1 How did Caroline help her husband?
- 2 How did British ships increase trade with South America in spite of the Treaty of Utrecht? Write an imaginary description of the visit of the *one* ship permitted
- 3 Why did Walpole want peace but the people clamour for war?
- 4 Try to make a list of women who have influenced history
- 5 Draw a map of the world and show the places mentioned in the Treaty of Utrecht
- 6 A small event will often cause a big quarrel, as for example "Jenkin's ear" Can you find other examples of this in history?
- 7 What is the meaning of chivalry?

THE CALENDAR

THE CALENDAR changed in 1752

A calendar is a way of marking out the time into years, months, and

A *year* is the time required for the earth to go once round the

The Egyptians had 365 days in a year

The Egyptians had a year of 12 lunar months and added a lunar month necessary to get time of full moon correct

The Egyptians had a year of 354 days—later 355 days, but they found seasons getting in wrong months

Julius Caesar introduced

JULIAN CALENDAR

Two months extra were inserted to get seasons right (to avoid confusion)

Year of 365 days with extra day in February every fourth

This Calendar used till 1582 Julian Calendar had error of eleven days a year

9. AMERICA AT THE BEGINNING OF THE SEVEN YEARS WAR

IN order to get a clear picture of the rivalry between France and Great Britain in America it will be well to remind ourselves of the actual possessions which each country had in North America.

1. The thirteen *British* colonies stretched along the eastern coast of the Atlantic. These colonies were not on good terms with one another, for they had different ideas about government and religion.

2. To the north of the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes was FRENCH CANADA.

3. LOUISIANA, round the mouth of the Mississippi on the Gulf of Mexico, was *French*.

The French Plan was to extend their possessions from Louisiana in the south and Canada in the north, and thus secure all the lands in the Mississippi and Ohio valleys. The British colonies would be penned in and the settlers would be unable to colonize west of the Alleghany Mountains. In time it might almost be possible to squeeze them out of North America altogether. The French dream was a *French North America*.

As a first step, the French started to build a line of forts along the Mississippi valley to link up with the other forts to north and south. The British colonists realized their danger when in 1754 the French completed Fort Duquesne. For this fort was built at a strategic point. It was on the Ohio River and commanded one of the few passes through the Alleghanes. The British settlers therefore organized attacks to capture the fortress, in 1754, under Washington – a general who was to become very famous later---and in 1755 under Braddock. But both these attempts were failures.

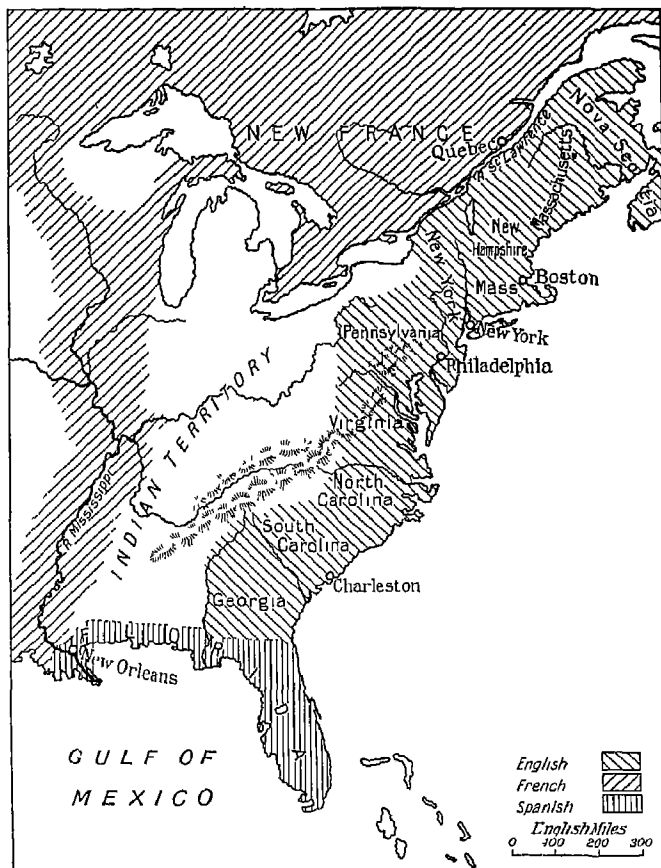


JACQUES CARTIER, A PIONNERING FRENCHMAN

A French sailor and navigator, born 1491. In 1534 he commanded an expedition to North America, entered the straits of Belle Isle, and took possession of the mainland of Canada for France. In 1535 he sailed up the St. Lawrence as far as Montreal. He founded a settlement in Canada and built a fort near the site of Quebec.

By courtesy of the Canadian Government

One difference might here be noticed between Frenchmen and Englishmen as colonists. The Frenchman was



SETTLEMENTS IN NORTH AMERICA IN 1759

willing to settle down with the natives of a country and to live as they lived, that is, he would "go native," for a time at any rate. France and the soil of France was very dear to him, however, and after his struggles and endeavours he

wished to return to his fatherland. The Frenchman is not at home when away from home, but the Englishman, when he goes abroad, likes to set up a bit of England wherever he is. Thus the French in North America, though small in number, by fraternizing with the Indians secured their help in war.

So the stage was set for a struggle between France and Great Britain for supremacy in North America. Could the French hem the British in and force them towards the sea? How would the British meet this threat to their lives and homes?

EXERCISES

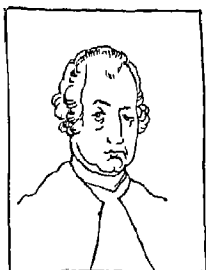
1 Draw a map to show how the American colonists were being encircled

2 What is meant by "a home from home"?

3 After the Great War of 1914-18 one Frenchwoman said, "I could forgive the Germans for killing my husband but not for invading my beloved France." Does this opinion agree with what is said about French peoples and their country above? Notice how this may partly explain the hatred of many Frenchmen for the Germans

10. FRANCE AND BRITAIN IN INDIA

THERE was no less rivalry between France and Britain in India as there was in North America, but perhaps it was less clearly and openly shown. The story of the conflict here starts with competition in trade. The two great trading



CLIVE

companies, the English East India Company—to which Elizabeth granted a charter to trade in 1600—and the French East India Company, were founded at about the same time.

These companies carried on their trade from *Factories* which were also *trading stations*. Though the word “factory” is now applied to a building where goods are manufactured, its original meaning was “a merchant’s or *factor’s* trading station in a foreign country.” In India the chief “factories” were—

On the West Coast

British
Bombay

French
Mahe

A long way apart

On the East Coast

British
Calcutta (Fort William),
Madras and Fort St
David

French
Chandernagore
Pondicherry

Only the river divided
them
Pondicherry lay between
the two British fac-
tories

Both companies had soldiers of their own and both desired to extend their trade. The French factories were controlled by a military Governor. How could trade be increased?

The French thought of a daring plan which was made

the position it must be remembered that—

(1) India is almost a continent, more than 1500 miles from east to west at its widest point and longer from north to south. In area it is almost as large as Europe without Russia.

(2) There is no common language and no common religion. The main religion is Hinduism, then follows Mohammedanism

(3) During Tudor times practically the whole of India had been conquered by the Mohammedans, and Akbar, a great Mogul who lived at the same time as Queen Elizabeth, had made his dynasty very powerful and had control of almost the whole land

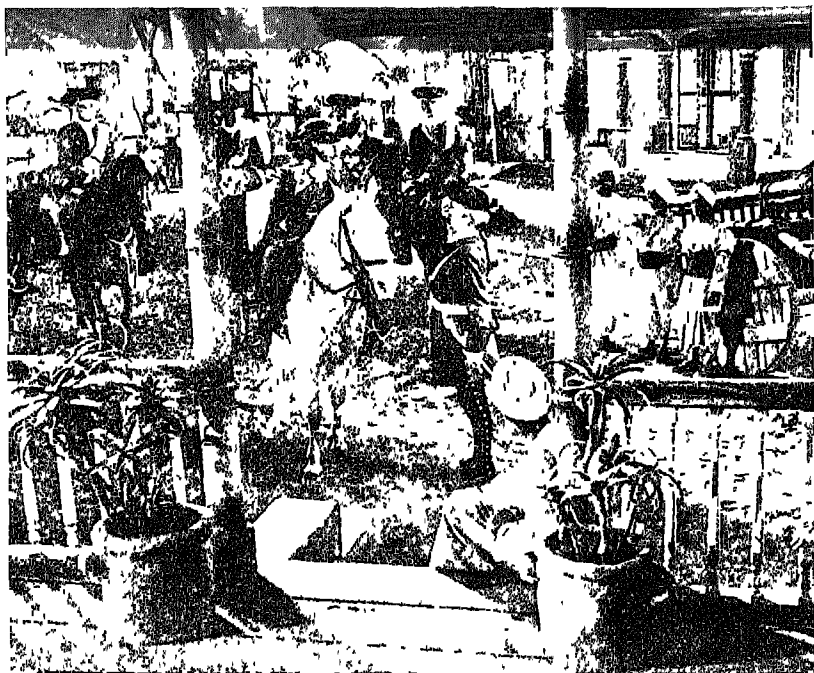
(4) But in 1707 the great leader Aurangzib died and the Mogul Empire began to break up. Attacks came from without, and endless quarrels arose within.

In 1738 the king of Persia captured Delhi and took millions of pounds of treasure. The Afghans took the Punjab; the rulers of many states declared their independence; and the highland Mahrattas of the Deccan fought the Mohammedan states. Thus there were numerous petty warring states where formerly there had been *one* powerful empire. (Compare these attacks on the Mogul Empire with those of the Barbarians on the Roman Empire about A. D. 400.)

In 1741 a clever French soldier and statesman named *Dupleix* had been appointed Governor of Pondicherry. He saw that the rivalry among the Indian states offered a good chance to Europeans (and to the French in particular) to set one state against another for their own advantage. During the War of the Austrian Succession the French actually took Madras from the British, but they had to return it after the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

Dupleix's chance soon came again. There were quarrels

amongst the natives as to who should succeed to the kingdoms of Hyderabad and the Carnatic, two states not far from Madras. The French supported one candidate in each state, the British another. Some fighting took place



SCENE FROM THE FILM "CLIVE OF INDIA"

This scene from the film "Clive of India" gives some idea of the setting of Clive's life in India

By courtesy of the United Artists

and the French candidates were both successful; the only town not falling was Trichinopoly. It looked as if the British would now be left behind in the race for trade

Then a young man came forward who changed the whole situation. He was ROBERT CLIVE, the son of an English squire, and he was born in Shropshire in 1725. As a boy he

had been adventurous, climbing steep towers, fighting schoolboys, and leading bands of his schoolfellows into mischief. Perhaps this is why his parents packed him off to India when he was 19 to work as a clerk in the East India Company. The lad did not take to the work, and was miserable. Now the Company's property was protected by native soldiers, the clerks often helping to train them. Clive volunteered to fight against Dupleix when Madras was attacked, and in the short campaign proved himself to be a brave and clever soldier.

When Trichinopoly was besieged, Clive offered to raise natives to attack Arcot. It is an old trick of war to launch an attack at another point so that the enemy will have to withdraw troops from the area already surrounded. Clive set off, attacked and took Arcot, much to everyone's surprise. Dupleix's allies hurriedly left Trichinopoly to relieve the more important town of Arcot. Then Clive found himself bound to defend his prize, and the tale of the defence of Arcot is an epic of bravery. The native soldiers had learned to love and trust Clive, and when provisions grew short they begged the British officers to eat the rice, for they would be satisfied with the water in which it was boiled. The town held until relief came, and the Mahrattas praised the "Valiant Warrior" and determined to be on his side for the future.

It was at this point that the Seven Years War between England and France broke out.

EXERCISES

- 1 From a geography book find the area and population of India to-day.
- 2 Why was Dupleix's idea a good one? Remember that the number of "whites" in India was very small
- 3 Find out what you can about the ancient civilization of India.

11. THE SEVEN YEARS WAR (1756-1763)

With the struggles between French and English settlers and traders in America and India occurring so frequently, it was not surprising that war between France and England should soon become inevitable

The Seven Years War was brought on not only by the colonial rivalry of France and England but because Maria Theresa was dissatisfied with the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which Silesia had been given to Prussia. Why not change sides and see whether an advantage could be gained? So the war opened with the sides as follows—

France and Austria allied,	v.	Great Britain
later joined by Russia		and Prussia

(France and Austria as allies—a new combination in Europe. When later in history was Great Britain allied with Prussia?)

For the first two years of the war Great Britain fared badly. The British Minister who directed the war at the beginning was the Duke of Newcastle, a weak and incapable leader. The Generals and Admirals seemed to be infected by the Duke's timidity, for neither on land nor sea could they do well. Byng with a badly equipped fleet refused to go to the relief of Minorca, which fell to the French. On his return home the angry people demanded he be tried by court-martial, found guilty, he was sentenced to death and shot, "to encourage the others." Byng, who had had several successes in the past, was probably not to blame, but he was punished for the general mismanagement of the Government and its officers. Then, on land, Fort William Henry and Oswego in America were lost. Luckily the

Prussians gained two victories, one against the French and the other against the Austrians. At one time it seemed that Great Britain herself might be invaded, and foreign soldiers from Germany and the Low Countries were paid to come over to protect the coasts.

Then the story changed from defeat to victory. WILLIAM PITT formed a *Coalition Government* with Newcastle. Unlike Newcastle, Pitt was a clever and courageous man who knew what he wanted and knew how to get it. He had the power of making people believe in him. Pitt said, "I believe I can save this country and that no one else can." Pitt had already showed, whilst he was Paymaster-General, that he would have straight dealing and be independent in his actions. So the coalition of Newcastle and Pitt set about winning the war—a coalition in which "Newcastle said what he liked and Pitt did what he liked"; and, of course, "actions speak louder than words."



PITT, EARL OF
CHATHAM

FREDERICK THE GREAT. Here it may be well to give some information about Frederick the Great who, at the time of the Seven Years War, was king of Prussia. If Pitt laid the foundations of the British Empire, it was Frederick the Great who raised Prussia to greatness and made way for the Germany of 1914.

He was born in 1712 and his mother was Princess Sophia Dorothea of Hanover, a sister of George II. He was a clever youth, interested in poetry and music, but he was not treated kindly by his father, who cared for little but soldiering and had left to Frederick a powerful and well-trained army. In 1740 Frederick became king of Prussia and (as you have read) fought for Silesia. After this war of

the Austrian Succession he reorganized his country, further improved the army, and encouraged trade. Therefore, when the Seven Years War opened he was ready for his enemies,



POSITION OF SHIPS AT QUEBEC IN 1759

By courtesy of the Canadian Government

a formidable group, for Austria, Russia, France, Sweden and a great part of Germany were against him.

PITT'S PLANS. Pitt saw first of all that it was essential that the nation should be *united*. He asked people to forget that they were Whigs or Tories and remember that they were Britons. Then he strengthened the army and secured a large sum of money from the House of Commons for the expenses of the war.

Pitt showed his plans by his words, "I will win America on the banks of the Elbe." In saying this he meant that if he supported the Prussian king the French would be so busy fighting on the Elbe that they would be unable to send reinforcements to Canada. So it befell that Frederick was given over £600,000 to help fight the French. Further, the British fleet made many attacks on the coast of France, so that the people never knew from which quarter the next danger would arise.

But Pitt did not neglect the army in Canada. Three armies marched to the attack, and amongst various successes Fort Duquesne was taken and renamed *Pittsburg*. There it is on the map to-day to remind us of Pitt.

In 1759 the Canadian adventure achieved striking success. Quebec, the great French stronghold on the rocky promontory, stood against an English siege by land and water. Month by month went by and Montcalm, the clever French leader, could not be drawn from his stronghold. Then some English ships got past the narrow passage opposite Quebec, and Wolfe, the English general, decided to attack in an unexpected quarter. In the dead of night British volunteers scaled a cliff, climbing with difficulty up a zigzag path. As the soldiers had rowed ashore with muffled oars Wolfe had quietly recited lines from Gray's *Elegy*, a poem which had recently been written.

"The boasts of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth o'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour,—
The paths of glory lead but to the grave "

"I would rather have written that poem," said Wolfe, "than take Quebec."

Early in the morning the French soldiers awoke to find an English army lined up on the Plains of Abraham. The French army collected together and for the first time in the

the attack began. The British held fire until the French were right upon them; then, following the volleys up, they charged, the ferocious Highlanders leading the attack. In less than half an hour the battle was won, and Quebec was captured, but both Montcalm and Wolfe were amongst the fallen. Wolfe had met the glorious death of which he had spoken the night before.

The coat Wolfe was wearing can be seen to-day in the Tower of London. Wolfe had been a soldier since he was a lad of 16. He was born at Westerham in Kent in 1727, had fought in Flanders and Prussia and at the battles of Falkirk and Culloden in the 'Forty-five rebellion. Pitt thought highly of him, and when someone once said to George II, "Wolfe is mad," George had replied, "If he is mad, I wish he would bite some of my generals."

Here is an account of the last moments of Wolfe's life taken from the *Historical Journal* of Capt. John Knox, published in 1769.

After our late worthy General of renowned memory was carried off wounded to the rear of the front line he desired those about him to lay him down; being asked if he would have a surgeon, he replied, "It is needless, it is all over with me!" One of them cried out, "They run, see how they run!" "Who runs?" demanded our hero with great earnestness, like a person aroused from sleep. The Officer answered, "The Enemy, Sir. Egad, they give way everywhere!" Thereupon the General rejoined, "Go one of you, my lads, to Colonel Burton tell him to march Webb's regiment with all speed down to Charles' River, to cut off the retreat of the fugitives from the bridge!" Then turning on his side, he added, "Now God be praised, I will die in peace," and thus expired . . .

In England, Wolfe's victory was unexpected. On the day before the battle, Wolfe had sent a letter to Pitt in which he said that Quebec seemed difficult to capture and that, though the British admiral would help, "I could not



MONUMENT TO WOLFE AND MONTCALM IN THE GOVERNOR'S
GARDENS, QUEBEC

propose to him an undertaking of so dangerous a nature, and promising so little success." So that when news of victory came the people went half mad with rejoicing. One writer says that people despaired, triumphed, and wept at the same time, for Wolfe had fallen in the hour of victory. (This rejoicing can be compared with that which occurred when Mafeking was relieved in the Boer War, and with the excitement on Armistice Day, 11th November, 1918)

Success seemed to lead to success, for many victories followed. At the Battle of Minderu (1st August, 1759), nine battalions of British and Hungarian troops marched in two lines across the plain under the crossfire of the French and gained a great victory. At the Battle of Quiberon Bay (20th November, 1759), Hawke, the British Admiral, fought the French fleet during a November gale in a treacherous bay, difficult to navigate. He gained a great victory and prevented the invasion of England which the French had contemplated. Montreal was captured in 1760, and Belle Isle, off the west coast of France, in 1761. Havana, Martinique and St. Lucia were later conquests from the French.

THE WAR IN INDIA. It was to be expected that open warfare should break out between the English and French in India. In 1756 the French excited the new ruler or Nabob of Bengal, Surajud Dowlah, to quarrel with and attack the English factory at Calcutta. The traders were beaten and fled—all but one hundred and forty-six unfortunates. These were imprisoned in a prison cell less than twenty feet square. The night was hot, there was no water, and only two small windows. The sufferings of the prisoners were unspeakable. In the morning, when the gates were at last unfastened, only twenty-three were alive. No wonder that this prison cell has been known since as *The Black Hole of Calcutta*.

But Clive was back in India, and he immediately took

steps to punish the Nabob. The fleet came north through stormy seas and Clive with only a small army marched on Surajud Dowlah. Brave and daring as ever, with only 3000 men he attacked 50,000 of the enemy. The natives were badly led, there was treachery amongst them and their powder was wet. The battle was soon over. Clive wrote, "A general rout ensued and we pursued the enemy six miles, passing upwards of forty pieces of cannon. . Surajud Dowlah escaped on a camel." From this date the East India Company were supreme in Calcutta. Later victories were gained against the French in Southern India. So it was decided that the British were to be the guardians of trade in the great Indian land.

THE TREATY OF PARIS, 1763. In 1760 George II died and his son, a young man of twenty-two, came to the throne. We will discuss this new king in the next chapter. However, we must notice here that he did not like the Whigs nor admire Pitt. Pitt wished to declare war on Spain, for he heard she was going to help France. The other statesmen would not agree; therefore Pitt resigned. War actually did break out with Spain. In 1763, however, the king and Lord Bute, the new Prime Minister, made a treaty of peace between England, France, Spain and Portugal. The claims of Frederick of Prussia were ignored by this treaty.

Great Britain received—

Canada
Land east of Mississippi
Cape Breton and other islands in
the Gulf and River St. Lawrence
Florida (exchanged for Havana)
West Indian Islands Dominica,
Grenada, Tobago
Mediterranean Minorca
Africa land round Senegal.

Great Britain gave up—

Belle Isle to France.
Martinique to France
St. Lucia to France
Pondicherry to France
French given rights to fish in New-
foundland.

EXERCISES

- 1 Draw an outline map of the world. Fill in the British possessions before the Seven Years War and then add in another column those gained by this war.
- 2 Why did the influence of Pitt bring success to Britain?
- 3 Look up the biographies of Pitt, Wolfe and other notable men named in this chapter (an encyclopedia will help you).
- 4 What did the King mean when he said of Wolfe, "If he is mad, I wish he would bite some of my generals"?

King's friends Wilkes prosecuted	French Revolution begins 1789	Waterloo 1815
Stamp Act 1765	Union of Gt Britain and Ireland 1800	
	Lexington, 1775	Slave trade abolished 1800
	Yorktown, 1781	
	Independence of U S A , 1782	New Corn Law, 1815 "Six Acts," 1819

12. GEORGE III

WHEN George II died suddenly on the 25th October, 1760, he was succeeded by his grandson who became king as George III.

George III was born on 4th June, 1738, so that he was only 22 years of age when he was crowned. This young man was thirteen when his father died, and he had been educated by his mother and a Scottish lord, the Earl of Bute. These two decided that the boy should grow up to look upon himself as a real king, like a Tudor or a Stuart. The lad, too, was proud of the fact that he was a real Englishman, born, bred, and educated in the country he was one day to rule. His grandfather and great-grandfather were very much interested in Hanover and paid annual visits to their German state, but George III, from the beginning of his reign, "gloried in the name of Briton." The young king meant to have a finger in the government of the country, and not leave it to the ministers as George I and George II had done. This would have been all to the good had George III been wise, sympathetic and broad-minded, but unfortunately he was not. We should remember this influence of the king as we study the history of England in the next sixty years—for George came to the throne in 1760 and died in 1820. It

was to be a long reign and one full of trouble not only at home but abroad, for the American colonies broke away from the Mother Country and the great "little Corporal" Napoleon made his name feared over nearly the whole of Europe before he was finally locked up in an island prison.

As a private man, George III was shrewd, generous, and of high character. He loved books and music; he took such an interest in farming that he was nicknamed "Farmer George"; and he lived a good life. His wife was a German princess and he had fifteen children, nine of whom were boys. The end of his life was sad, for the unfortunate king had fits of insanity.

At the very start of his reign, George III showed his idea of the part a king should play by putting his late tutor, Bute, in power, and not endeavouring to keep Pitt as a minister when he resigned. It is true that Bute did not hold office long, but he still influenced the king. Further, a new group of men got together in the House of Commons who were neither Whigs nor Tories, but called themselves *The King's Friends*. These men voted as the king ordered them. This was a backward step from the ideal of "government of the people by the people," but it enabled the king to be indifferent to the Whigs.

Then there was trouble over a man named JOHN WILKES. He was the editor of a paper called the *North Briton*, and in No. 45 of his journal he wrote that the king had spoken untruly in his speech at the opening of Parliament, when he said that Frederick of Prussia agreed with the Peace of Paris. King George was angry at this and said Wilkes had insulted him personally, though, of course, everyone knew then, as is the case to-day, that the king's speech at the opening of Parliament is written by his ministers. Wilkes was arrested under a general warrant, his crime not being stated. This was illegal, for Wilkes was a Member of Parliament and as such could only be arrested

for treason, felony or a breach of the peace, and he was guilty of none of these. Then Wilkes demanded that he should be released under the *Habeas Corpus* Act, as his offence had not been stated. The Chief Justice ordered Wilkes' release; he then got £1000 damages for illegal imprisonment. These were not the days of the Norman kings, nor of the Tudors. Yet Parliament sided with the king, and passed an act expelling Wilkes from the House. Riots in sympathy with Wilkes occurred in many places. The people were venting their anger against King and Parliament for they felt an attack was being made upon the liberty of Britons. In 1774, after a long struggle, Wilkes was elected again to Parliament and allowed to retain his seat.

EXERCISES

- 1 Why was the formation of a party called The King's Friends a backward step?
- 2 Turn back and find what the *Habeas Corpus* Act says
- 3 Why is it important that Members of Parliament cannot be summoned or imprisoned for what they say in Parliament?

13. THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

THE money received by a government to provide soldiers, sailors, schools and all the other departments of a country is called the *Revenue*. This revenue is obtained mainly in three ways—

(1) From taxes on goods entering or leaving a country—these are called CUSTOMS DUTIES.

(2) From taxes on goods produced within the country—these are called EXCISE DUTIES.

(3) From Taxes on Income, Death Duties, etc., and *Stamp Duties*—these are called the INLAND REVENUE.

When the French were finally defeated and by the Treaty of Paris (1763) all Canada passed into British hands, the American colonists could feel more secure. The danger of French attack had passed. But the war had cost a great deal of money, and the British Government decided that the people of America ought to pay something towards the cost, for they had surely benefited.

To collect this money from the Colonists a new Inland Revenue bill was passed which was known as the STAMP ACT. By such an act, money is collected for the revenue by getting people to affix stamps to certain papers. For example, to-day, if you pay a bill for £2 or more, the receipt which is given you must bear a 2d. stamp. Thus, as you buy stamps from the Government and the Government does no service for the 2d., it amounts to paying a tax of 2d. to the Government.

The Stamp Act of 1764 stated. "It is just and necessary that a revenue be raised in your Majesty's dominions in America for defraying the expenses of defending, protecting and securing the same." Stamps of varying value had to be affixed to contracts, leases of land and houses, bills and

other documents. These papers were illegal and useless without the stamps.

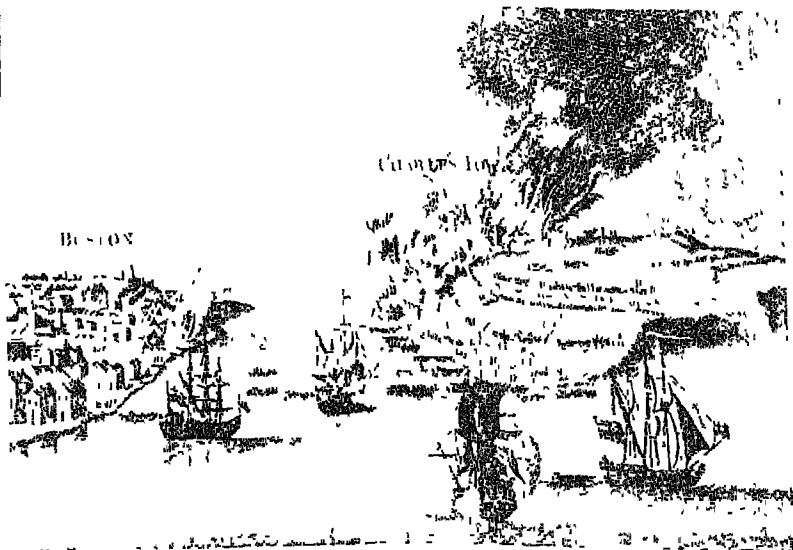
This new act aroused strong protests from the colonists. There were many reasons for their anger. For many years they had been irritated because the trade of America was hindered by the British Government. This was true, for the home government would not let the colonists manufacture goods in case injury should be caused to manufacturers at home. Then they had ordered that all raw material to be exported, like tobacco and cotton, should be sent first to Britain so that British ships and British merchants might benefit most. Whilst the French danger threatened, the colonists said little about these grievances, but now they felt safe in complaining.

Then the colonists, many of whose forefathers had left Britain because of ill-treatment or persecution, thought the new Stamp Act was wrong because it went against Magna Carta. They said that one of the great things about old English law was that there should be "No taxation without representation." This means that people may not be taxed unless their representatives sit in Parliament where the taxes are settled. The colonists said, "We have no representative in the British Parliament, therefore Parliament cannot tax us." They agreed to pay indirect taxes on goods sent to their country, but they would not pay direct taxes such as were proposed under the Stamp Act.

In the British Parliament, great orators like William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, Burke and Charles Fox spoke against the wrong being done to the colonists, and the Stamp Act was repealed. But George III and some of his ministers and friends looked upon the colonists as rebellious children, and determined to make them pay. Still more new taxes were put on goods entering the American ports.

Massachusetts was ordered to disband its Parliament and British troops were sent to Boston. But the colonists would

not give way. Finally the government cancelled all taxes except that on tea. The East India Company had the sole right to sell tea to Britain and its colonies. The Company wanted money to pay for its wars in India and its taxes to the government. Ships laden with tea were sent to



VIEW OF THE ATTACK ON BUNKER'S HILL, WITH THE
BURNING OF CHARLESTOWN, 17TH JUNE, 1775

From an old print

America and the colonists were to pay 3d per lb tax on the tea. When the vessels arrived, the colonists were determined to drink no tea on which taxes were paid: they boarded the ships and threw their cargo into the sea. This was the "Boston Tea Party"—the first sign of open resistance to the British Government.

The Government determined to teach the colonists a lesson. George III said, "If we take the resolute part they will be very meek." The Earl of Chatham saw the danger and appealed to the Government to treat the colonies fairly

No one listened. The colonists for their part got ready; they collected an army and put it under the charge of GEORGE WASHINGTON who had attacked Fort Duquesne in 1754.

War began between the British troops and the Colonial forces, and in 1775 fighting took place at Lexington and at Bunker's Hill. The British troops, though winning the first engagements, suffered heavy losses. Then the colonists tried to get the French in Canada to rebel against the British, but they refused. Thus the first round of the war was to the Home Government.

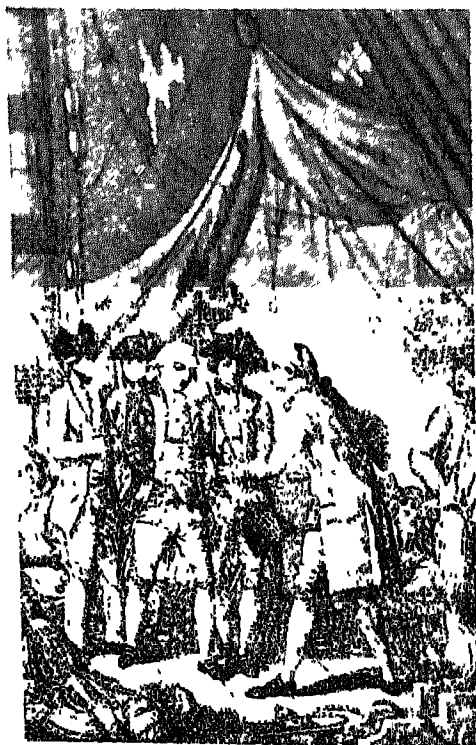
In spite of this, on 4th July, 1776, the Congress, or general Parliament of the colonies, met and made the DECLARATION OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE in the following terms—

"We, the representatives of the United States of America in general Congress assembled, do in the name and authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States. . . . And for the support of this declaration with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes and our sacred honour." (Independence Day is celebrated in the United States of America on the 4th July every year.)

The war went on; the British troops were reinforced by hired Hessians from Germany, but to no purpose. The colonists had the will to win and the British lacked leadership and spirit. In 1777 the British general Burgoyne had to surrender at Saratoga Springs. The news of the disaster reached the French. They had never believed that the colonists had a chance, but after this victory they allied themselves with the colonists. Spain and Holland did the same.

From this time on, the campaign promised success to

the colonists. After many more tussles the final British defeat came at Yorktown in 1781. Cornwallis, the British



THE FRENCH ADMIRAL, COUNT DE GRASSE, DELIVERING HIS SWORD TO ADMIRAL RODNEY ON BOARD THE *Ville de Paris*

After being defeated on 12th April, 1782, in the West Indies.

(From a contemporary print)

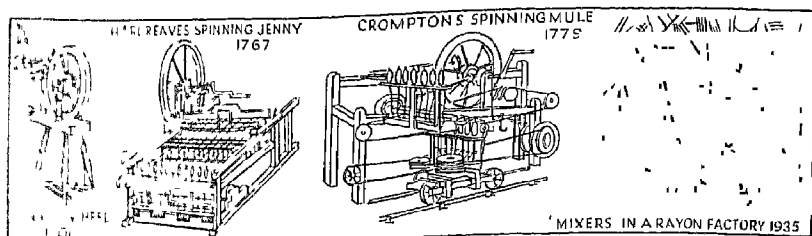
general, hoped to get help by sea, but the French fleet came and drove off the British ships. Cornwallis was besieged and starved into surrender. The war with America ended, but that with Spain, Holland, and France went on. Rodney beat the French fleet at the Battle of St Vincent (1780), and Gibraltar successfully resisted a three years' siege. In 1783, by the Treaty of Versailles, the war was ended. What were the terms? The independence of the colonies was recognized. Minorca was given to Spain and Tobago to the French.

George Washington in 1789 became the first President of the

American Republic. A fine soldier and a clever statesman, "first in peace, first in war and first in the hearts of his countrymen," Washington did more than any other man to launch the new state successfully.

EXERCISES

1. What was the main cause of complaint of the colonists?
 2. Why was it right that the colonists should pay some tax?
 3. What do you think George III would have been wise to do?
 4. Why was the "first round to the Home Government"?
 5. Copy out the quotation from the Declaration of Independence
- Why do you think the people of U.S.A. celebrate 4th July?



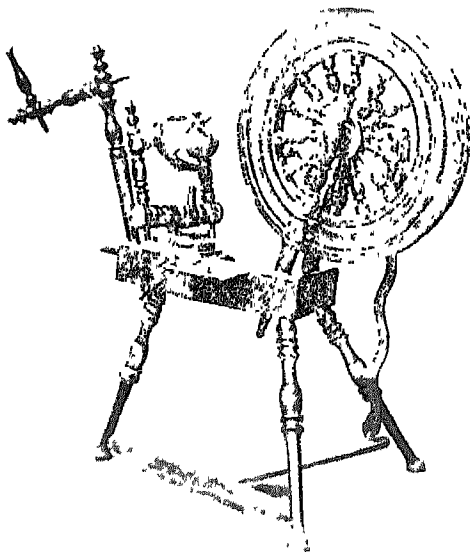
14. THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

WHILE Clive was adding to the British Empire in India and Wolfe was scaling the Heights of Abraham, while the colonists in America gained their independence and wars were waged in the four quarters of the globe, the people of Britain, by their industry and inventions, were making their country "the workshop of the world."

We have read (in Chapter 7) how new methods were introduced into farming; now we must see how inventions changed the business of manufacturing. This change is usually called the **INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION**, which means that there was an entire change in the way in which goods were manufactured. We have all seen pictures of a busy manufacturing town to-day. There are factories with high chimneys from which smoke pours into the air; huge furnaces may be seen, in which bars of iron and steel are produced. When the evening hooter sounds for the factories to stop work, hundreds of employees flock into the streets, and hurry for buses, trams or trains to take them to their homes. The houses in which these people live form street after street in the town. Dozens of shops are built so that the workers can buy food and clothing: theatres and cinemas provide amusement for them.

Two hundred years ago such towns with their factories and large populations were unknown. Most of the goods manufactured were produced by people living in their own homes, generally in the country or in small towns or villages. This system of manufacture we now call the *Domestic*

System, the name being derived from the Latin *domus*, a home. The great majority of families at that time made their own clothes, usually from wool. The staple industry of England had long been the production and export of wool, and English and Scotch sheep had been famed for



SPINNING WHEEL.

Yarn has been spun in the home on such machines through long centuries

From an exhibit in the Science Museum, South Kensington.

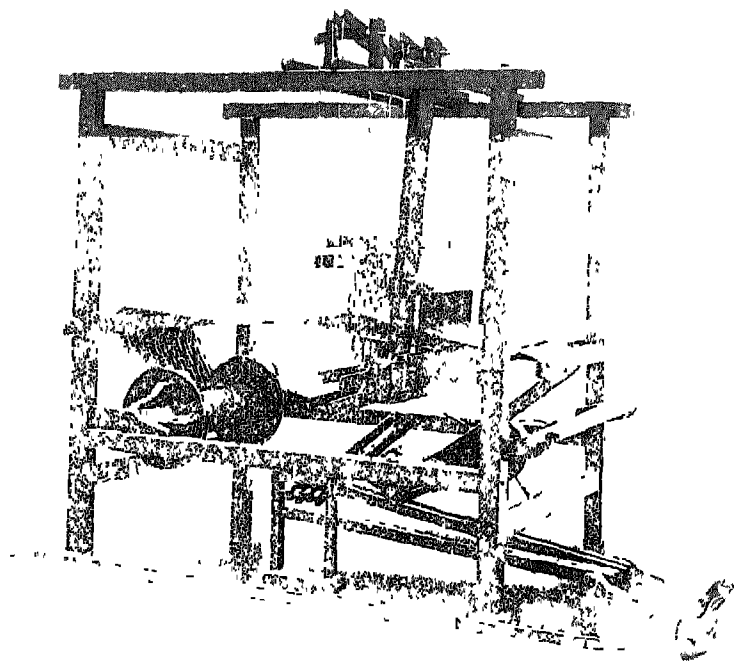
their fleece for centuries. Now if you look at a piece of woollen material you will see that it is made up of woollen strands interwoven at right angles. To make the cloth from the wool of the sheep there are two essential processes -

(1) *Spinning* the yarn, i.e. twisting the thin wool from the sheep together to form the strands used in weaving;

(2) *Weaving* the yarn into cloth.

A great deal of yarn is required to make a piece of cloth,

and all the members of a family from the youngest children to the grandmother could usefully learn how to spin. A single woman is still called a spinster, and this reminds us that the spinning was mainly done by women. Weaving was



MODEL OF HAND LOOM

From a model in the Science Museum, South Kensington

Can you see the shuttle?

done on a hand loom. The method of weaving simple cloth is easy and has been practised for thousands of years. One set of threads extends from end to end in parallel lines and is known as the *warp*, the other set crosses and interlaces with the warp and goes from side to side. This is known as the *weft* or *woof*. In the first row the weft passes under the 1st, 3rd, 5th, etc., strings of the warp, the seconds under the

2nd, 4th, 6th, etc. The odd number strings are fastened to a piece of wood, and the even numbers to another piece. These pieces are raised in turn and the yarn is threaded through by means of a shuttle. You should make a simple loom and see how the model works. In many homes the husband wove the yarn made by his womenfolk into cloth on a simple loom. Sometimes, however, the yarn was sold to men who travelled the country-side buying it to sell again to weavers. To-day in the western isles of Scotland famous brands of cloth are still made from wool, spun, woven, dyed and prepared for market all in the homes of simple peasant folk.

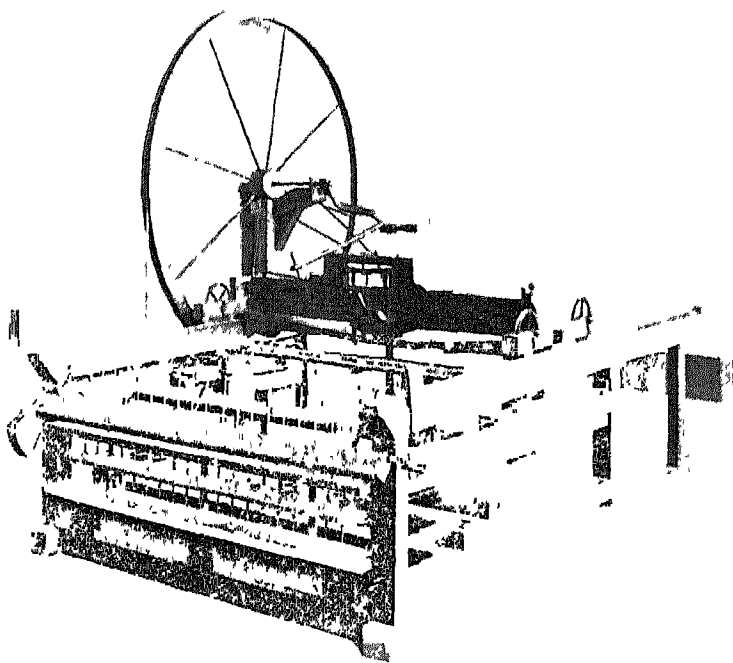
Here we might note that the work was done *by hand*, for men had not yet learned to make many machines or to harness the power of steam to their service. Iron was smelted with charcoal and not with coal. Coal was used for fires in some houses from the time of Queen Elizabeth, but deep coal-mines from which vast quantities of coal could be raised were only made possible when Newcomen invented in 1705 a steam pump to rid the pits of water. This invention was the forerunner of the modern steam engine.

The Industrial System grew up with the invention of machinery which could do rapidly work previously done slowly by hand. Machinery cost money and needed large space and power plant for driving it. Thus work was transferred from homes to factories. This did not happen all at once.

The chief material used in cloth-making had been wool, but flax and hemp had also been employed. Now the new Cotton was to take a prominent part in industry. Raw cotton was brought to England from America, and the first cotton was manufactured in Lancashire about 1800, though it was used in India in the fifth century B.C., and cotton goods had been imported from the East by the great trading companies. The earliest of the inventions that

transformed spinning and weaving were for use in the new cotton industry.

The first important invention was that of the FLYING SHUTTLE by John Kay of Bury in 1733. The weft had been



HARGREAVES' SPINNING JENNY, 1750 57

From the replica in the Science Museum, South Kensington

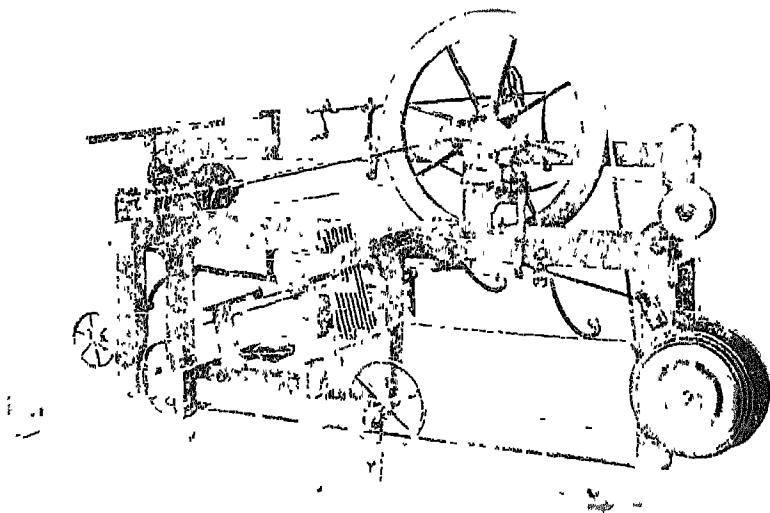
made by passing a shuttle from side to side of the warp by hand, so that the width of cloth woven was limited to the distance between a person's arms, and cloth was usually woven 27 in. wide. Kay's shuttle could be worked by one hand and enabled a weaver to work quickly and make material of greater width. The immediate result was that weavers wanted much more yarn: but households could not

supply it. The Society of Arts offered a prize for a machine that would spin six threads of wool, flax, hemp or cotton at one time, and would require but one person to work and attend it. James Hargreaves made several attempts to construct such a machine, but, as the story goes, it was only a lucky accident which solved the problem for him. His wife's spinning wheel was knocked over and broken but, to Hargreaves' astonishment, the spindle still revolved like a top. This gave him the idea of fixing the spindle perpendicularly, and before long he invented a hand machine which could spin a number of threads. This machine was called the SPINNING JENNY, and so easy was it to work that yarn could be made much more rapidly than before. When the hand spinners discovered this they feared that their livelihood would be lost, and they started a riot. A mob broke up the inventor's home, and he had to run for his life. Hargreaves' jenny was especially suitable for spinning yarn for the weft. The warp had to be stronger, and often linen yarn had been used for this. It was the invention by Arkwright in 1768 of a machine on the plan of a previous French invention which enabled the raw cotton to be drawn out by rollers and a stronger cotton yarn suitable for the warp to be spun. Arkwright in 1771 used water power to drive this machinery and built a factory in the Derbyshire hills. The machine was then called the *Water Frame*. In 1786 Arkwright was knighted for his work.

Samuel Crompton was another pioneer. In 1779 he combined the good features of Hargreaves' and Arkwright's machines and called his new machine the MULE. All these inventions had improved the output of yarn, but had not assisted the weaving side of the industry. At one time English mills were actually exporting yarn for foreign weavers.

In 1784, however, a clergyman, the Rev. E. Cartwright, discovered how to make a loom to be driven by other than

human power. At first a bullock attached to a bar walked round and round turning a wheel which in turn moved the loom. A few years later water power was used, which in turn gave place to looms driven by steam power. To-day the looms are often worked by electric power. Another



CROMPTON'S MULE, 1774-79

From the replica in the Science Museum, South Kensington

invention of Cartwright's was that of a wool comber which combed out the fleece wool ready for spinning. In Gloucestershire, Yorkshire and elsewhere remains of houses and mills can be seen, relics of the time when the source of power used in the cloth industry was the water of a running stream.

The factory system developed rapidly when steam could be used as a source of power. An engineer of ancient Greece once had an idea for a simple steam engine, but it was Thomas Savary, a miner, who patented the first real engine

in 1698, and Newcomen's engine was an improvement upon it. The credit for the first effective steam engine must, however, go to James Watt. In 1764 a model of Newcomen's engine was sent to him for repair. He found it wasteful of power, and after ten years of study he devised a new steam



JAMES WATT

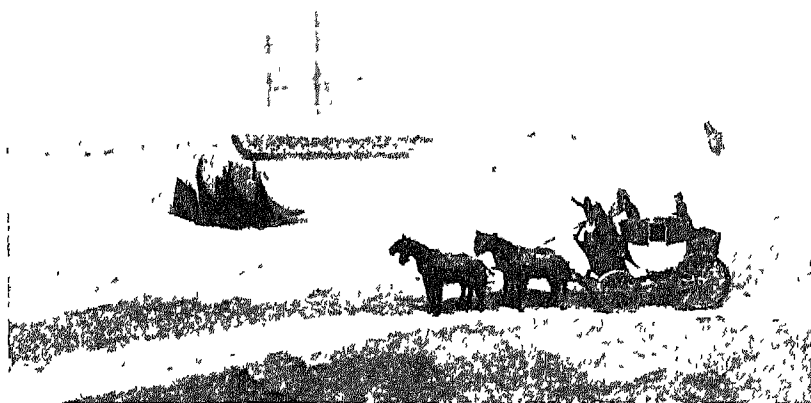
By permission of the Director of the Science Museum, South Kensington

engine whose principle was practically the same as of those in use to-day.

With the invention of the steam pump came a large increase in the supply of coal. This was followed by great advances in the iron industry. The fact that coal and iron were often found together made Britain at this time the greatest iron-producing country in the world.

The manufacture of china and porcelain from clay is another of the oldest industries. When the clay is moulded it is fired in a kiln. In the middle of the eighteenth century the manufacture of pottery also made rapid progress,

largely through the plenitude of coal. Josiah Wedgwood (1730-95) was largely responsible for the growth of the industry in the region of the Midlands now known as "the Potteries." An interesting piece of local history can be traced in certain place-names in Shropshire. At Coal-



TRANSPORT IN THE LATE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY
From the choroma in the Science Museum, South Kensington

brookdale on the Severn were deposits of iron ore, limestone, and coal. Here in 1709 an ironworks was founded. Not far away is Ironbridge a name which indicates that one of the first iron bridges in the country was built here. Coalport, quite close to it, too, was long famed for its pottery.

Later we shall see how the improvement of roads by pioneers like Macadam, the building of canals by Brimley, and the establishment of railways still further encouraged the growth of the factory system.

Further we shall see how the changed system affected the lives of people. No longer did the multitude live in cottages on their own piece of land, but were herded

together in towns. Many miseries and injustices were caused. All of these have not yet been righted, though men and women of goodwill have been working to do this for over a hundred years

EXERCISES

1 What is the difference between Revolution and Reform? Which takes place most rapidly? Why is reform often necessary after revolution? Chapters 19-22 may help you to answer this

2 Make a model loom and note its principles. All looms are based on these.

3 Which invention of the Industrial Revolution do you think most important and why?

4 What do you think were the main differences between the Domestic and Factory Systems in industry?

5 Why did the fact that Britain was a pioneer nation in modern industry make her wealthy and powerful?

6 Describe the principle of weaving

7 Why does the rate of weaving depend upon the rate of spinning?

8 What was one of the chief difficulties in early coal-mining? How was it overcome?

9 What industries could develop when coal was plentiful and cheap?

10 Write a story about a family in the wool trade who first made cloth at home, then in a mill by a stream in Gloucestershire, and finally in a factory in a growing town.

11 How does a satisfactory transport system help trade?

15. PRICES AND WAGES IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

WE have described the growth of industries during the eighteenth century. What did the people earn who worked at the various trades, what did food cost, and how were farm workers paid? Here are a few quotations from writings of those times to give you some answers to such questions.

(1) From Arthur Young's *A Six Month's Tour through the North of England*. (London, 1771.)

Leeds cloth market is well known, and has often been described. They make chiefly broad cloths from 1s 8d to 12s a yard, but mostly of 4s 6d and 5s. Good hands at this branch would earn about 10s 6d a week the year round, if they were fully employed. A boy of thirteen or fourteen, about 4s a week, some women earn by weaving, as much as the men. The spinning trade is constant, women earn about 2s 6d or 3s a week. Girls of thirteen or fourteen earn 1s 8d a week. A boy of eight or nine at ditto 2½d a day, of six years old 1d a day.

Now for the cost of food, etc

10 ounces of Oatbread 1d	Butter 8d lb
Beef 4d lb.	Veal 2½d lb
Milk 1d a pint in winter,	½d a pint in summer

(2) From the same book.

The people employed in the coal mines earn from 1s to 4s a day. About five miles from Newcastle to the iron-works. Here they earn from 1s to 2s a day, and some of the foremen as much as £200 a year.

(3) From *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Sussex*. (1893.)

PRICES AND WAGES IN EIGHTEENTH CENTURY 77

Workers on the land Yearly earnings, £28 8s 10½d

Year's rent of Cottage, £2 16s 1d	
Flour a gallon	11¾d
Cheese lb	6d
Bacon lb.	7d
Potatoes bushel	1s. 6d

(4) From Sir F. Eldon's *The State of the Poor*. (1797.)

Common tailors in Morpeth now receive 1s a day and their victuals, spinners of wool 4d a day and their victuals Masons now receive 2s 6d and 2s 9d a day, a mason's labourer 1s 6d a day. In Oxfordshire the farm labourers earn 8s a week, and 12s a week in harvest, together with three pints of beer

EXERCISES

- 1 Write down the prices given above and then write at the side of each the corresponding prices to-day
- 2 Write side by side the varying wages in different industries in the eighteenth century and to-day

16. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND THE NAPOLEONIC WARS

WE have seen how frequently Britain and France were at war with one another, but perhaps we have not thought about the people who lived in France. Were they happy or miserable, free or enslaved? To understand the world in which we live, we need to know something of the history of peoples in other lands, their mode of life, and the problems they had to face.



FRENCH
PEASANT BOY,
1820

France towards the close of the eighteenth century was in a very bad state. You will remember the long reign of Louis XIV; he had been practically a dictator, and the people had no share in the government of the country. He was an absolute monarch. Now the people in France belonged to definite classes. In the country we should find -

(1) The *Noblesse* the aristocrats, Lords and Dukes. If a boy or girl were born into an aristocratic family he was always an aristocrat.

(2) The clergy these never married and were favoured by reason of their holy work.

(3) The common people (in the towns the shopkeepers formed a kind of middle class).

In the old English Manor of the twelfth or thirteenth centuries many of the villeins and serfs were practically slaves of the lord of the Manor. In 1780 hundreds of thousands of the common people of France were still in this position. They not only paid heavy taxes - few, if any,

being paid by the aristocrats and clergy to meet the cost of the wars and expenses of the king—but they also had to work without wages on certain days of the week for their lord. It is no surprise therefore to find that the French people were discontented, for they had no real liberty.

Across the seas in America the British colonists had rebelled against the taxes which George III and his ministers had called upon them to pay. French troops led by aristocrats had gone to the assistance of the colonists. *Their* independence had been won. Gradually the idea of liberty had spread, and the common people of France began to wonder how they might gain their independence from the yoke of taxation and the harshness of their landlords and rulers.

When a man intends to build a house he first sits down and draws a plan of it. If a boy wishes to be a good athlete he trains for it. Before the man draws the plan or the boy begins training, both have thought about what they want to do. *Thought* comes before *Action*. The French people had been downtrodden for centuries—they had become used to bad treatment. Now they were made to think about their hard lot and the injustice of it, not only by comparison with the American colonists but by the writings and teachings of Frenchmen who sympathized with them.

Two of these men, Voltaire and Rousseau, might be mentioned. VOLTAIRE was a clever French writer, born in Paris in 1694. He was frequently put in gaol or banished from France for his writings against the Court or government. Plays, poems, stories and histories were all amongst his work. He had friends in England and had stayed at the Court of Frederick of Prussia. He was a remarkable man who began to make people think about the justice which was due to the common people.

ROUSSEAU. Jean Jacques Rousseau was a Frenchman born in Geneva in 1712. His most famous book which

began to stir up discontent amongst the common folk who read it or heard about it was the *Social Contract*. The "text" of this book was the famous phrase, "Man is born free and everywhere he is in chains." Frenchmen, knowing



THE POINTING FINGERS

From the film "The Scarlet Pimpernel."

By courtesy of United Artists

their own troubles, began to think that Rousseau was right. Thus the seed of revolution had been sown.

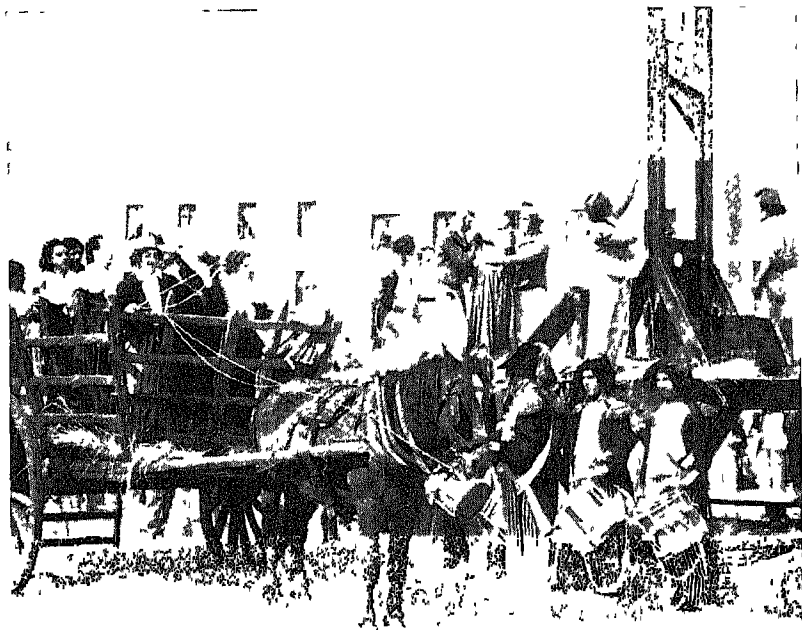
Now dictators and absolute monarchs can generally have their own way so long as they are *successful*. When the country suffers no great defeats in war or is made to bear no heavy burdens of taxes, the people accept their rulers without murmuring. But as soon as the dictator begins to fail, then comes the day of reckoning.

Where was the mighty France of Louis XIV? No longer

did it hold sway over Canada. The East India Company of Great Britain was supreme in India. The extravagance of the Court and costly wars had used up the wealth of the country—France was heavily in debt. What was to be done? King Louis XVI had become king in 1774, being only twenty years of age. Though he honestly wished to rule according to the interests of his people, he knew little about the real duties of a king. A strong ruler was what France needed. Louis' reign opened successfully, and all might have been put right without revolution, had the guidance of Turgot, a far-seeing statesman, been relied upon. But things went from bad to worse. Then it was suggested that the old States-General, a kind of Parliament or National Assembly of the three estates—aristocrats, clergy, and common people, should be summoned. It had not met since 1614. After great argument the States-General met on 5th May, 1789, at Versailles. It was this meeting which was to prove the real beginning of the French Revolution.

The suggestion was made that each estate should hold a separate meeting. The body representative of the people, known as the *Third Estate*, would not agree and retaliated by saying that they would form the NATIONAL ASSEMBLY. The people of Paris sympathized with the people's representative. The king gave way and said that all three Estates should meet together. Then the king and his court sought to awe the National Assembly by bringing large numbers of German and Swiss paid soldiers to Paris. The people's answer was to form the National Guard. On the 14th July, 1789, the fortress prison of the Bastille was stormed and destroyed by the mob. People said that the fall of the Bastille was a sign that the old system of government in France was to fall too. Mobs all over the country attacked the mansions of the "seigneurs," or lords, and refused to pay taxes.

In October, 1789, the women of Paris marched to Versailles and brought the king, queen and their little son back to Paris. (The kings of France had for long lived at Versailles in the vast Palace built by Louis XIV.) The



THE GUILLOTINE AT THE TIME OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

From the film "The Scarlet Pimpernel"

By courtesy of United Artists

people of the capital were starving and they thought that where the king was there would be plenty of bread.

The National Assembly had sent the key of the Bastille to George Washington and later, when they drew up what they called the *Declaration of the Rights of Man*, they sent a copy of this to America too. The king sided at one moment with the Assembly and the next he opposed it. He knew that he and his family were in danger. In June, 1791, the king

fled and tried to escape from France, as so many of the aristocrats had done. He was caught, however, brought back, and allowed to live in Paris, practically as a prisoner.

Many people in England were at first in sympathy with the revolutionaries. They remembered the English revolution of 1688. Pitt, the son of the great Earl of Chatham,



MARIE ANTOINETTE AND THREE OF HER CHILDREN

By courtesy of Director and Secretary, Victoria and Albert Museum

thought it no business of Britain. Wordsworth the poet, when in France at the time of the Revolution, praised it. Soon, however, people began to see that the revolutionaries were going too far. Thousands who were not in sympathy with the people's cause were guillotined, and in August, 1792, Louis XVI was dragged from his palace and imprisoned; he was executed in the following January. Some months later his queen Marie Antoinette suffered the same fate. The little Dauphin lived in solitary confinement, wishing he might die. A real REIGN OF TERROR had begun.

Leader after leader attempted to guide the "sovereign people" on its path to liberty—only to fall under suspicion, often with fatal results to themselves. Danton and

Robespierre, who had sent hundreds to the guillotine, suffered death in this very way.

In 1792 war broke out. France feared that Prussia and Austria were trying to undo the work of the Revolution. In 1793 France declared war also against Britain, Spain and Holland. A heavy task lay ahead of the new government with many nations at war against her and Royalist risings taking place in many parts of France.



NAPOLEON

*By courtesy of the Director and
Secretary, Victoria and Albert
Museum*

Then came the military leader France needed at this time of crisis; this was Napoleon Bonaparte. Napoleon was born in Corsica in 1769. The island now belonged to France and though Napoleon's father was really an Italian and a Corsican "patriot," he himself was French. In 1785 Napoleon entered the French Army. His first idea was to use the Revolution as a chance of freeing Corsica, but he soon saw that he

might get quicker promotion and more power by helping the revolutionaries themselves.

At the siege of Toulon he commanded the artillery. When the mob rose against its own government in Paris in 1795, Napoleon scattered the rioters with charges of grape shot. The government were pleased with this success and sent the young officer with troops to invade Italy. He was more than successful, defeating the Austrians (who then ruled northern Italy) and forcing them to yield up Lombardy to France. Soon the French people were acclaiming Napoleon as a national hero.

Now for the British! Napoleon saw that England's navy was too strong for him to attempt an invasion, but instead he decided to close England's trade routes to the

East by attacking Egypt. Here he was successful again, beating the Turks quite easily. But his victory was in vain, for Nelson, the British Admiral, had brought his fleet to Egypt and at the Battle of the Nile (1st August, 1799) he completely destroyed the French fleet. Thus the French army could not get back to France. Napoleon then attacked Syria, but he could not break the resistance of a gallant British force under Sir Sidney Smith.

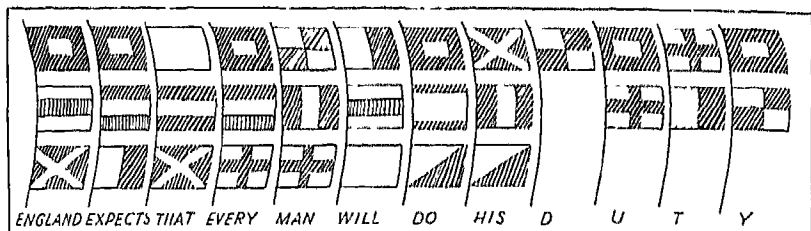
Napoleon left his army in Egypt and came back to France to find a new danger. Russia had joined with Austria and Britain as allies against France. What did he do? He turned out the government of five men, known as the Directory, set up a new government, and made himself head of it with the title of First Consul. He was now leader not only of the Army but of the State, a real dictator (November, 1799).

In 1800 Napoleon was ready to fight once more. He struck again at the power of Austria. Crossing the Alps, he defeated the Austrians at Marengo and made them sue for peace and hand over the left bank of the Rhine. Russia withdrew from the war, and in 1802 peace with all his enemies was made by the Treaty of Amiens. This was in no sense a real peace: it merely gave a breathing-space while both sides rested and gathered their forces for a fresh struggle. Napoleon was a danger to the peace of Europe. Here we might mention that during the last campaign Napoleon had stirred up Denmark and Sweden to block British trade in the Baltic. This was a new way of injuring his foe. Nelson, however, defeated the Danish fleet at the Battle of Copenhagen.



FRENCH SOLDIER
IN NAPOLEON'S
WARS

Within thirteen months of the signing of the Treaty of Amiens, Britain was at war with Napoleon again. This was to be a war between France and Britain to determine once for all which nation should be supreme upon the ocean and in the great trading centres of the world. Napoleon realized that it was Britain that stood between him and world power.



NELSON'S FAMOUS SIGNAL

In 1804, we may note, he had himself crowned in Paris as Emperor of the French.

It is impossible to describe all the events of eleven years of war, but these can be divided up into four groups -

(1) His attempt to invade England. An army of over 100,000 Frenchmen was gathered at Boulogne. Hundreds of flat-bottomed boats were built to carry troops. The troops waited. The British organized a volunteer army, new ships were built for the navy, and allies were sought for on the Continent. But it was Nelson who spoilt Napoleon's plan. At the Battle of Trafalgar (21st October, 1805) twenty-seven British ships fought thirty-three of the enemy. The British gained the victory in one of the greatest of all sea fights, more than half the enemy ships being captured and the remainder destroyed later. The great admiral, in the moment of success, was shot through the shoulder and breast. He died, but not before victory was assured. Napoleon could now not hope to invade England.

(2) The allies of Britain fought Napoleon on the Continent. Napoleon tried to punish England by closing all

ports of Europe to her trade by means of his "Continental System." To do this he had first to subdue the nations on the Continent who opposed him. Prussia and Russia were brought to defeat, and agreed to refuse to buy English goods. Britain retaliated by stopping ships of France and her allies, and as Britain had command of the sea, Napoleon's



THE DEATH OF NELSON
From a contemporary print

plan failed. British trade with Europe did decrease and there was much unemployment, but the final result was to make Britain look for new markets in other continents. The cheap manufactured goods produced under the Industrial System sold readily and British trade expanded.

(3) In 1808 Britain decided to fight Napoleon on land as

well as at sea. He had defeated Spain and now wished to conquer Portugal, who had always been England's ally. The Spaniards had revolted against the king whom Napoleon had appointed, and Britain now sent money and arms to assist the rising and landed an army in Portugal. Napoleon himself then led an army into the Peninsula. Spain was

Saturday and if this Wind holds She will at 12 o'clock
 - month before Thompson quits the Channel "only
 way that the French may not be ready to
 leave Brest I have been in a fever ever since
 the Boudin's return with the account of their
 being ready for sea. Lady Nelson and my
 Father thanks you for your kind remembrance
 of them, and believe me my dear Mary's
 Your most affectionate
 Horatio Nelson.

PORTION OF A LETTER WRITTEN BY NELSON TO THOMAS LLOYD,
 ESQ., ON 29TH JANUARY, 1798

soon brought to heel and then Napoleon prepared to destroy a British army under Sir John Moore. Moore withdrew towards the north-west, the French following over mountainous country in the depth of winter. Near the coast at Corunna in January, 1809, Moore halted and fought the French, defeating them but losing his own life in the struggle. The British army embarked safely. Napoleon had gone back before the battle started, for war had broken out anew in Austria. He defeated the Austrians at Wagram; and in the next year he divorced his wife and married the daughter of the Emperor of Austria. Meanwhile the British

had sent another army to Portugal under Wellesley, a general who soon became famous.

Wellesley trained his army in new methods of attack and defence, and established lines of trenches in which his soldiers could shelter and protect the capital, Lisbon. When the French attacked these "Lines of Torres Vedras" they could make no impression on them, and they retired to Spain. Wellesley, however, was not yet ready to follow the French.

In 1811 Napoleon's fortunes stood perhaps at their highest, yet in the next year it was that the first great defeat came which led to his overthrow. The Tsar of Russia, encouraged by the success of the British in Spain, refused further support to the attack on British trade. In the autumn of 1812, Napoleon, determined on revenge, led his army into Russia. Though beaten in the Battle of Boro-



GENERAL GEORGE THOMAS
NAPIER, K.C.B. (1784-1855)

*By courtesy of the Director and Secretary,
Victoria and Albert Museum*

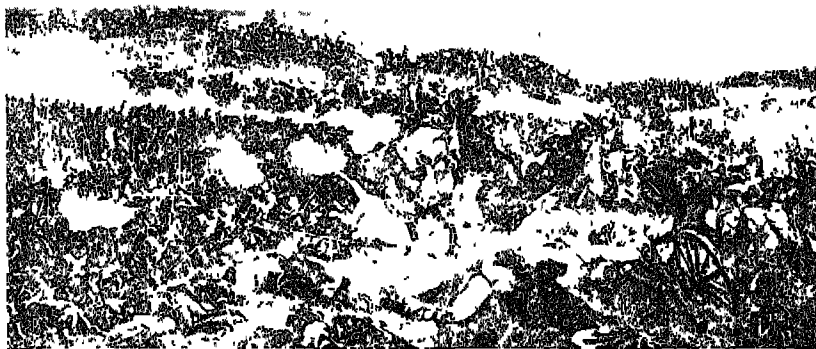
dino, the Russians retreated in good order, ravaging the country as they went. By September, Napoleon was in Moscow, yet hardly had he occupied the city before a great fire broke out; all food had already been taken by the retreating Russians, and now all shelter was gone, and the great French army was caught in the grip of a Russian winter without supplies. Napoleon ordered a retreat, and on reaching Poland he hurried on to France to raise new forces, leaving the Grand Army to fight its way back. More than half of the soldiers perished through cold and hunger, and in their sufferings the doom of Napoleon seemed to be written.

The Russians had continually attacked the retreating troops until a mere remnant of an army was left. Then Prussia was encouraged to rebel, and in 1813 at the Battle of Leipzig the French were defeated. On to Paris marched the Allies, meeting no effective resistance, and in 1814 Paris was taken.

Napoleon gave himself up to the Allies, and he was sent to the Island of Elba and told to rule over that dominion, which he did for some weeks. The nations of Europe now met at Vienna to settle the troubled affairs of the Continent. In the midst of their discussions came the alarming news that Napoleon had escaped from Elba and landed in France with eight hundred men; worse still, the French people had welcomed him with joy and his old soldiers were gathering round him. There were several reasons for this—one was that the French hated Louis XVIII who had been put on the French throne by the Allies, and feared they would lose all they had gained in freedom by the Revolution; but probably the real reason was that Napoleon was a born leader of men.

(4) On 20th March, 1815, Napoleon reached Paris with a force of 100,000; thence he marched on 12th June to try to drive a wedge between the British and Prussian armies which were moving up against him. The three days' march of the French troops was a wonderful performance. Napoleon attacked and drove off the Prussians. Two days later, 18th June, the great Battle of Waterloo was fought. From eleven in the morning till four in the afternoon the British troops withstood the shock of infantry attacks and gunfire, never wavering; the centre stood firm. Then, at 4.30 p.m., the Prussian reinforcements began to arrive and Napoleon could see defeat looming ahead. At 7.15 p.m. the final charge of the French Guard was ordered, and this was repulsed. Then the French army began to retreat, followed by the Prussians. Four days later, in Paris, Napoleon

abdicated; and finally he put to sea and surrendered to a British man-of-war. The Allies were taking no risks this time and Napoleon was sent as a prisoner to the lonely island of St. Helena far out in the Atlantic. In 1821 the deposed Emperor died. He was still a hero to the French



THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO

By courtesy of the Director and Secretary, Victoria and Albert Museum

nation, and thirty years later his body was brought to Paris to be buried in a splendid tomb.

The Napoleonic Wars were over; debt, poverty and sorrow were left in their train. The results of the war were to be felt for a long time to come, and perhaps they are not yet forgotten, for it is to this time that we may date the beginning of the rivalry between France and Germany.

THE POST-WAR SETTLEMENT. (1) Britain retained Malta (a key isle in the Mediterranean), Mauritius, and the Cape of Good Hope (now in the Union of South Africa).

(2) The German states united to form what was known as a Confederacy (note that the president of the group was still Austria).

- (3) Russia enlarged its boundaries
- (4) Belgium was joined with Holland.
- (5) Spain and Italy had their own kings reinstated

EXERCISES

1 Here is a brief outline of the life of Arthur Wellesley, the famous British general in the Napoleonic Wars. Expand it into a fuller statement

4th son of Earl of Mornington born 29th April, 1769—
educated Eton At 18 ensign in 73rd Foot Regiment (now 2nd



THE DUKE OF WELLINGTON

By courtesy of the Director and Secretary, Victoria and Albert Museum

Batt. Black Watch) 1794-5 fought in Flanders 1797-8 fought in India- 1798 Governor of Seringapatam and military governor of Mysore 1803 won Battle of Assaye -1805 made Major-General, returned England, became M.P - 1808 put in charge of British troops in Portugal--1809-14 in charge of British Army in Peninsula--note Salamanca, 1812, when "40,000 men were defeated in 40 minutes"--1812 made Earl of Wellington--1813 Field-marshal--1814 Duke of Wellington-- 1815 won Waterloo--after war entered Cabinet--1827 Commander-in-Chief--

FRENCH REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEONIC WARS 93

1828 Prime Minister—1830 loses office 1832 opposed Reform Bill but allowed it to pass—died 1852.

2 We speak of the Industrial Revolution and the French Revolution. In what sense were they “revolutions” and how did they differ?

3 “The times make the man.”—Napoleon appeared as a military leader at a period when his services could be of use. Mention other men who have arisen in history and met an apparent need.

4 What results had the French Revolution in Britain?

5 Why is sea-power more important to Britain than land-power? How has the invention of the aeroplane altered this? What effect on the Napoleonic Wars might the use of aeroplanes and modern transport have had?

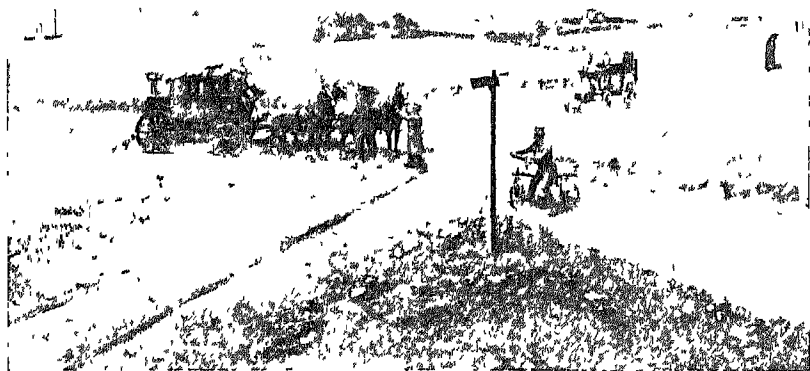
17. AFTER THE NAPOLEONIC WARS

PEOPLE often imagine that when a great war is won and the enemy is defeated all will be well and prosperity will return at once. History proves, however, that this is rarely so. Both victors and vanquished suffer after a war and as a result of it. While it is in progress, money is spent freely to provide materials of war. Factories are busy, food must be supplied, all are at work. When peace comes, Governments need no longer provide so many articles of war and so do not spend so much money; they must find ways of paying back the money they have borrowed for war expenses. Taxes must be increased, and the ordinary person has less to spend. During a war, ordinary markets in foreign countries have been closed and it is difficult to get back the trade so lost. Frequently another country which has not been fighting has stepped in and captured the market.

The workers of Britain were to suffer severely as a result of the Napoleonic wars, though they did not feel the effects as badly as some, for the new factories brought trade and wealth to their owners. The Industrial System also brought heavy burdens upon the workers. The people who had gone to live in towns to work in factories had very poor houses, as many as twenty had been known to live in a cellar. No longer could they get vegetables from a garden, fuel from the woods, milk from a goat or cow, or keep geese upon a common. All their fuel and food had to be purchased. Wages were none too high.

The war finished, many were thrown out of work, food increased in price. Soldiers and sailors came back from the wars, were demobilized and added to the number of the unemployed. There was no unemployment insurance as

there is to-day. What could the workers do? Some said that machines were the curse of the age, and they proceeded to smash up the factories and their contents. Rioters in the Midlands from 1811 to 1816 who destroyed machinery were called *Luddites* after Ned Ludd, an imbecile boy who is said to have accidentally destroyed some machines when chasing



TRANSPORT IN THE EARLY NINETEENTH CENTURY

From the diorama in the Science Museum, South Kensington

his tormentors. Other people complained that the poor had no representatives in Parliament and thought this should be put right. The Government got alarmed when such riots occurred, and remembering the French Revolution, put them down with force. In 1817, mill workers of Lancashire marched on London, each carrying a blanket to sleep in--hence their name "Blanketeers." They were dispersed, and a London mob was broken up about the same time. The most serious event, however, was near Manchester, when some 50,000 men met in St. Peter's Field to demand that

Parliament should be reformed. Soldiers were called out, eleven people were killed and five hundred were wounded (the "Peterloo massacre").

Other workers had thought that a better way to get fair wages and conditions would be by joining together in societies. These "combinations" of workpeople were the beginning of the modern "Trade Unions." In 1799 and 1800 laws had been passed declaring such combinations to be illegal.



ENGLISH PAINTED
WOODEN DOLL—
PERIOD WILLIAM IV
(1830-37)

*By courtesy of the Director and
Secretary, Victoria and Albert
Museum*

After the Peterloo massacre, the Government decided on sterner measures. In 1819 the *Six Acts* were passed which put heavy penalties on rioters, people using or carrying fire-arms, people who formed bands to drill, and on any who wrote or spoke against the Government. The poor were to be forced to be silent, no paper should tell of their sufferings, and no public meetings should be held. This, however, did not prevent people from wishing to improve the lot of the worker. Reform, in fact, was not far off.

During the long war, George III had been king. In 1810 he had become permanently mad, and the king's place had been taken by the Prince Regent, his son. In 1820 George III died and the Regent became king as George IV. Though he was clever he had lived an extravagant life and was of little use to the country either as Regent or king. One who knew him described him as "a bad son, a bad husband, a bad father, a bad subject, a bad monarch, and a bad friend." No wonder that the new king could not help his poorer subjects to get justice.

1820

GEORGE IV

1830

Free Trade—taxes off

1828-29

Religious Changes—Test Act	} repealed
Corporation Act	
Catholic emancipation	

EXERCISES

1. Try to find out whether people suffered after the Great War of 1914-18

2. What countries in Europe to-day have groups of people who drill in uniform, though they do not belong to the Army?

3. What law has been passed in recent times forbidding the wearing of uniforms?

4. Think of some nicknames used in history and try to discover why these names were given

5. Name six rulers of these islands who might be termed "good" and six who might be termed "bad" in the period of history from 1066-1800.

18. NEW NATIONS ARISE IN EUROPE

EVENTS AFTER THE NAPOLEONIC WARS

- GREECE. Declaration of Independence 1st January, 1822. Independence of Greeks from Turkey recognized, 3rd January, 1830.
- FRANCE. After revolution Bourbon kings again on throne. Another Revolution 27th -29th July, 1830, Louis Philippe made king. Another Revolution 24th February, 1848, Louis Philippe deposed. 10th December, 1848, Louis Napoleon, nephew of the Great Napoleon, made President for four years. 2nd December, 1852, President made Emperor 1870, Franco-German War. After defeat, Republic proclaimed
- BELGIUM. 1830, revolt against union with Holland. 21st July, 1831, Leopold I became king of Belgians. Treaty signed 1839, European Powers guaranteeing the independence of Belgium
- ITALY. After French Revolution Italy consisted of a number of states. People began to talk of a united Italy. 1848, Rebellion against Austrians. Pope fled from Rome. 1849, Austria regained power. 1849-59, "Decade of Resistance" 18th February, 1861, Victor Emmanuel made King of Italy.
- Three names to remember--
Garibaldi --the leader of the "red shirts."
Mazzini--the writer.
Cavour--the statesman.

- GERMANY. 1815, Confederation of states.
1848, Revolutions.
1861, William I, King of Prussia. Bismarck his chief minister. Prussian army made powerful.
1864, Schleswig-Holstein taken from Denmark by Prussia.
1866, War with Austria—Austria defeated in seven weeks. Battle of Sadowa.
1870, Franco-German War - France defeated, King William proclaimed Emperor of Germany. All German States and Alsace-Lorraine made up the German Empire.
- AUSTRIA- 1867, no longer anything to do with Germany
HUNGARY. King Emperor Francis Joseph I crowned as Emperor of Austria, and separately on 8th June, 1867, as King of Hungary.

19. REFORMS

(a) RELIGIOUS FREEDOM

We saw in a previous chapter that the working classes of Great Britain had many grievances after the Napoleonic Wars; riots were frequent in many parts of the country. Some of the statesmen and rulers thought that the best way to deal with these grumbling dissatisfied people would be to pass harsh laws and crush them. Other and younger men, like Peel, Canning, and Huskisson, believed this to be the wrong way, and that revolt would surely break out if grievances were not redressed.

This second view was the one ultimately adopted, and in this and following chapters we shall see how the lot of the workers of Britain was made easier by laws which were passed.

The main grievances can be put under four headings—

- (a) Religion
- (b) Voting for representatives in Parliament.
- (c) Price of food.
- (d) Conditions of work.

(a) RELIGION. The national religion of these islands is Christianity. Since the time of the Reformation the national church in England had been the *Church of England*, and according to an Act of Parliament passed in the reign of Charles II only those who were members of the Church of England could hold Government offices. Now you know that since the Reformation other religious bodies had been formed in England. The Nonconformists—Baptists, Congregationalists (called at first Brownists and then Independents), Wesleyans, etc. had broken away from the English Established Church and worshipped God according

to their own ideas. Many Nonconformists had served under Whig governments in the eighteenth century, and it had been usual for the Whig government of the day to introduce



(GORDON RIOTS IN LONDON, 1780)

This picture, taken from an old print, shows the disturbance which took place in London in 1780. In that year an Act had been passed giving Roman Catholics the right to inherit and purchase land, and greater freedom to priests. Lord George Gordon was at the head of a society formed to get the Act repealed. The mobs rioted and smashed, but were finally quelled by the soldiers. Dickens describes these riots in his story of *Barnaby Rudge*.
The time was not yet ripe for religious freedom.

a bill to cancel any punishment these Nonconformists might be due to suffer under the law.

In 1828 the Government agreed that the law should be altered and that in future Nonconformists should be able to serve in a British government. This was important, for it recognized the right of men to worship God in their own way. There were, however, members of one religious body that still suffered—the Roman Catholics. Since the time of William III, Roman Catholics had been badly treated. In 1778 a law was passed which gave Roman Catholics in

England who took the oath of allegiance to the king the right to hold land, to become lawyers and solicitors, and to enjoy freedom of education. A similar Act applying to Scottish Catholics was passed in 1791. One year later Roman Catholics in Ireland, who had been even more harshly treated, were given the same privileges, except that certain offices were still closed to them.

After a long discussion the *Catholic Emancipation Bill* became law on 10th April, 1829, by which Roman Catholics could hold all offices of state except the Lord Chancellorships of England and Ireland, the Lord Lieutenantcy of Ireland, the office of Regent of the United Kingdom or that of High Commissioner to the Church of Scotland. They could not hold any office in connection with the Church of England, which is understandable. When it was possible for Roman Catholics to become Members of Parliament, then a number were elected for Ireland and sat at Westminster. Immediately they began to clamour for a separate Parliament for Ireland and the movement for *Home Rule* for Ireland started. Later you will learn how Ireland got not *one* Parliament of her own but *two*.

EXERCISES

1 Name the National Church of: England, Scotland, France, Spain, Italy, Germany, Russia and Greece. (You may find it difficult to find answers to some of these points.)

2 Discover from early books in this series what the following terms mean: Protestant, Nonconformist.

3. Why, in the eighteenth century, were Roman Catholics especially prevented from taking office under the Government? (Note the Act of Succession, for example.)

4. What does "Emancipation" mean and to what other matter was it applied?

5. Why was the demand for a Parliament in Ireland called "Home Rule"?

20. REFORMS

(b) PARLIAMENT AND THE VOTER

THE English Parliament had grown up through hundreds of years, and very little change had been made in the way in which people were elected to it. The House of Commons was composed of members chosen by vote of the people. When Acts about the religion of Members of Parliament were passed, then people began to wonder whether any other changes were necessary.

SUFFRAGE. This word is derived from the Latin *suffragari*, to vote for, and means literally "the right to vote." Now in 1830 the only people entitled to vote for Members of Parliament were wealthy people, i.e. great landowners. No one else had a voice in the elections. Then the election of Members of Parliament was from two distinct districts, (a) the towns or boroughs, (b) the counties, i.e. the large country areas. Each sent two Members to Parliament. The Industrial Revolution had made many changes in the way in which the population was distributed. Many new towns like Manchester, Leeds, and Birmingham had grown up; but they sent *no* Members to Parliament. Some of the older boroughs had fallen in population. Others had gone out of existence altogether. Old Sarum near Salisbury, for example, once a city of importance, was now but a heap of stones—still it sent two Members to Parliament, the voting being in the hands of the landowner. Boroughs whose population had greatly decreased were called *Rotten Boroughs*.

REFORM. It is not surprising then to find men anxious to reform Parliament. In March, 1831, Lord John Russell introduced a Bill into the House of Commons to alter the way in which people were elected to that body. (Lord

Grey was Prime Minister at the time but he sat in the House of Lords.)

Lord John Russell made a remarkable speech when he introduced the bill, pointing out that it had always been the Government's aim to make the House representative of the people. He said we boasted of our constitution, but asked what would a Frenchman say if he were shown a heap of stones or a tumble-down village and told that those places could send their two Members to Parliament, whilst the large cities like Liverpool and Manchester sent none. He also said that only wealthy men could hope to get into Parliament, for voting took place in public, that men often sold their votes for money to the highest bidder, and that there was a great deal of dishonesty in connection with securing election to Parliament.

The Tories did not agree that any change was necessary. The Bill only passed its second reading in the House of Commons by one vote; therefore the Government resigned. On being re-elected it brought in the Bill once more; this time, though it passed the Commons, the House of Lords threw it out. The people were angry, riots broke out in many places, Nottingham Castle was burnt down, the Mansion House at Bristol was attacked, and it looked as if revolution was in the air. Another election took place, and the king, fearing further disorders, told Earl Grey that, if necessary, he would make more peers so that there would be sufficient to vote for the Bill in the House of Lords. Thus on 1st June, 1832, the First Reform Bill became law.

What were the reforms introduced by this new law? Here is the summary attached to the Act.

(a) Fifty-five boroughs returning two Members, Higham Ferrers returning one Member, disenfranchised (This meant that the smallest and "rotten" boroughs lost their members.)

(b) Thirty boroughs returning two members deprived of one member.

(c) Twenty-two cities and boroughs given two Members.

(d) Twenty boroughs given one Member. The larger counties also gained more representatives.

Voting. Men who rented lands and tenements of the value of £50 a year, even though they did not own the land, were allowed to vote in the counties. In the town all those who occupied shops or houses of £10 yearly value were given the vote.

This was a big step forward. The power was passing into the hands of the newer industrial classes. The poor man had no vote, for rents were very low. His time to assist in the election of the House of Commons was yet to come. Here we might briefly sum up other changes that have been brought about since the Reform Act of 1832.

1867: Second Reform Act introduced by Disraeli. In boroughs, all male householders paying poor relief were given the vote, and male lodgers occupying lodgings of annual value £10 also received it. In counties, the vote was given to persons holding leasehold and copyhold of £5 and to occupiers of £12 rateable value (can you see how a man might have more than *one* vote?). More small boroughs lost their Member; some large towns, like Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, and Leeds, gained one Member.

1884: Third Reform Act introduced by Mr. Gladstone. By this Act the same rule applied to the counties as previously applied only to boroughs, i.e. all male householders and male lodgers were given the vote. Thirty-three new boroughs were created, Scotland received twelve new seats, and the representation of some cities was increased.

1918. All men over 21 who had lived in a district for six months and all women over 30 who could vote at local government elections, or were the wives of such electors, were given the vote. No person should have more than one

vote, and all elections should take place on one day. Numbers of seats increased.

1928: Representation of the People Act *Every man and woman* over 21 years of age who has resided in a constituency for a period of at least six months, or has occupied business premises for that period, to have the vote. The husband or wife of such person is also entitled to vote in that constituency. All polls must take place on one day, and no elector is allowed to vote in more than two constituencies.

Remember that every one of you will have a vote when you are 21. This is a great reason for learning about the history of your country so that you will have some knowledge as to *how* to vote.

NOTE. Elections were held in public until 1872 when the Ballot Act was passed. The word *ballot* is derived from a French word meaning "a little ball." In elections to-day the names of candidates are printed in alphabetical order. The voter takes the paper into a private polling booth and makes a cross against the names of the candidate or candidates for whom he wishes to vote. He then folds the paper up and places it in a sealed ballot box. The box is only opened when all the votes are to be counted.

EXERCISES

1. Why is the right to vote for Members of Parliament, Town Councils or Committees, of great importance?

2. Why do you think that the right to vote was given to people in this country in the order (1) Landed Proprietors, (2) Factory and shop owners, (3) Workers?

3. Discover in what countries of Europe (a) There is Universal Suffrage, i.e. all adults can vote at elections, (b) Where men only have the vote

4. Find where it is possible to inspect a list of voters in your district. Obtain a list and find out all you can about the information given therein.

21. REFORMS

(c) PRICE OF FOOD

YOU will know already how important it is that the trade of a country should flourish. It is easy to see that if a man had a shop full of goods and no customers came to buy from him he would soon have to put the shutters up. Similarly, if a nation is manufacturing goods it is necessary to sell them as fast as they are made. Now the goods may be sold within the country or they may be *exported* and sold to nations abroad. When the exports of a country are of a higher value than the imports, wealth must be flowing into that country. In a country where *all* necessary food and raw materials for manufacture can be obtained the export of goods is not so important. Where, however, food or raw materials have to be imported by a country, it is necessary for that country to export goods abroad at least to balance the value of the imports.

Here we come to another of those points of view or differences of opinion which we find so often about trade and government. Is it better to let goods be imported freely into a country under a system of FREE TRADE, or shall certain imports be taxed as they enter a country? We cannot go into all the arguments here.

In Britain for long years it was usual to tax certain imports and to make laws about what ships should carry goods. Trade was limited or *restricted* and, as we saw, this was one of the causes of the war with the American colonists.

After the Napoleonic wars, thousands of people were out of work. Where once each householder had his garden and could grow food, now many were in towns, working in factories, and had to buy their food. What these factory workers wanted was cheap food. But though manufactured goods were sold abroad and much food was imported it was

still very largely taxed. Food was too dear. During the wars, wheat had risen to a high price and farmers in Britain had increased their acreage of wheat. Prices fell after the war, and in 1815 the Government put a tax on foreign corn to stop anyone buying it until the price was over 80s. a quarter. This was done to keep the price of corn up so that the British farmers might be encouraged to grow it. People were still afraid that, in case of war, Britain might be starved if farming was neglected.

In 1776 a Scotch professor, ADAM SMITH, had published a book called *The Wealth of Nations*. This book gave many reasons for removing the taxes on food. Many taxes on food were reduced or cancelled, but there still seemed to be no agreement on taking taxes off *corn*. The book also had another effect. It held that the Government would do well to let trade alone and then it would flourish. This idea discouraged governments from passing laws to protect employees or to regulate working hours and conditions.

After the war the people of Lancashire were particularly badly off. The workers there demanded cheaper food, and it is little wonder to find an *Anti-Corn Law League* being formed in Manchester in 1838. The leaders of this league were RICHARD COBDEN and JOHN BRIGHT. Cobden was a cotton manufacturer who entered Parliament in 1841; John Bright was a Quaker cotton-mill owner, chosen M.P. in 1843. Both were great orators.

The work of the Anti-Corn Law League and the speeches of these two men made many people believe that the Corn Laws ought to be repealed. The Prime Minister Peel, who believed in Protection, would do nothing except to vary the sliding scale. Soon the nation had a terrible example of what famine and dear food will do. In 1845 the potato crop in Ireland failed, and the wheat crop in England was very poor. Irishmen for long years had made potatoes their staple diet and now thousands of them died of starvation.

The sufferings of the poor were terrible. Soup kitchens were set up, the starving people were fed and cheap corn was admitted for a time. Then Peel, the Prime Minister, saw that the only sensible thing to do was to take the taxes off imported corn. Having made up his mind on the matter, he did a courageous thing: he introduced a Bill into Parliament to repeal the Corn Laws. Now he was a Tory Prime Minister, and thus his supporters were of the country gentry and farmer class, who benefited from the Corn Laws. On 16th February, 1846, he made a great speech in the Commons, and though opposed by the brilliant Jew, Disraeli, and the young landowner George Bentinck, the bill became law. This was largely due to the fact that the Whigs supported the bill, though many of Peel's own supporters voted against it. Later, as a result of this, Peel lost the leadership of his Party; but within a few years all taxes on food were abolished. In order to raise money lost to the nation by the repeal of the Corn Laws, a tax on incomes was set up; though not a new tax, it had previously only been enforced in time of war. Now a large part of the national income is derived from Income Tax.

It is well to note here that Britain was a free trade country until the outbreak of the Great War in 1914. Joseph Chamberlain and others had tried to get taxes put upon imports but in vain. The first taxes on imports came in 1915 when "luxury" goods entering the country were taxed. After the war, taxes were put on the import of dyestuffs. During the Great War, no German dyes were imported and a new British industry was established. The taxes on dyestuffs were to protect this industry. This was followed in 1921 by taxing all goods belonging to certain "key" or essential industries, when such were imported. Then in 1931 2 Britain ceased to be a Free Trade Country and a general system of tariffs or taxes on imports was introduced to help our depressed industries.

CORN LAWS IN THE PAST

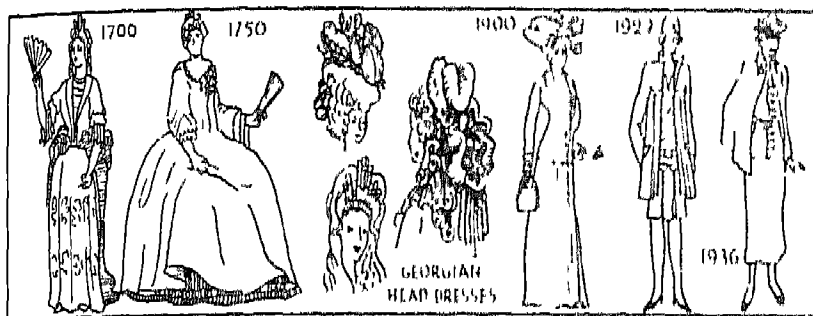
Edward III, 1360-1361.	No grain to be exported.
Richard II, 1394.	Grain could be exported, except from a few ports.
Henry VI, 1436.	Export of grain permitted when price less than 6s. 8d. a quarter and barley less than 3s. 4d. a quarter.
Edward IV, 1463.	<i>Import</i> prohibited until price exceeded export price limit. Note effect of this in later centuries.
Charles II.	Duties on imported and exported grains.
William and Mary.	Bounty paid on <i>exported</i> wheat. Bounty 5s. quarter while price was 48s. quarter or less.

Industrial Revolution

Turned England from *grain exporting* to *grain importing* country.

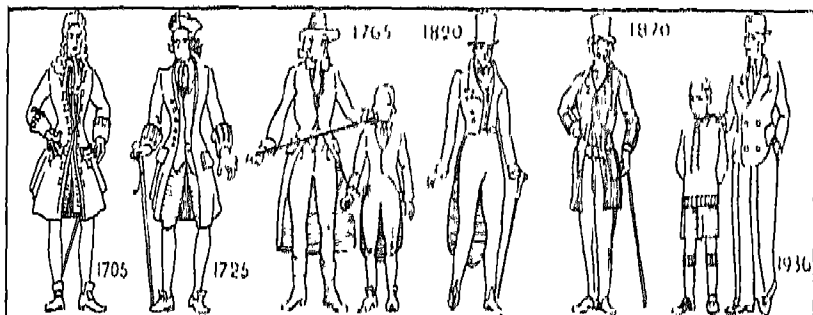
Laws passed to check imports of corn, e.g. 1804, tax 24s. 3d. per quarter if price below 63s.; if between 63s. and 66s., tax 2s. 6d.

Such a tax worked in sliding scale and kept the price of corn up.



EXERCISES

- 1 Why was cheap food necessary for workers in factories after the French Revolution?
- 2 How can taxes on imports help (a) farmers (b) manufacturers?
- 3 Why might a new industry need protection?
- 4 What is the difference between (a) a tax on imports (b) a bounty or subsidy?



22. REFORMS

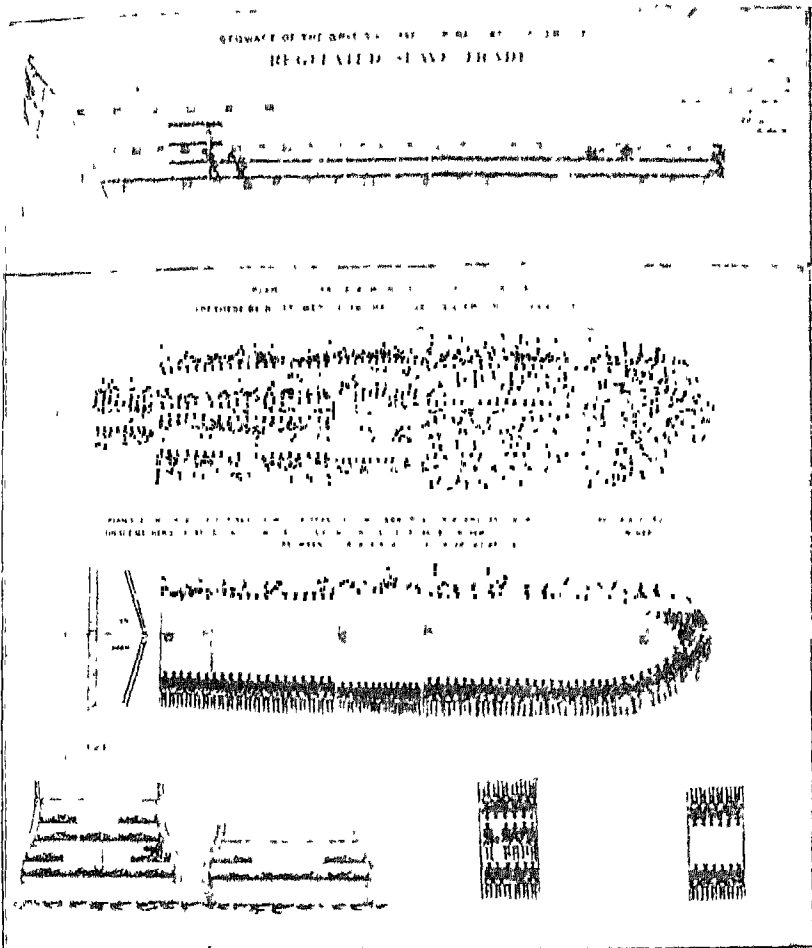
(d) CONDITIONS OF WORK

As we stated earlier, the growth of the Industrial System with its factories and badly built towns brought suffering to the working classes. Many men and women thought that the grievances under which they suffered should be put right. Amongst those who agitated for reforms were the CHARTISTS. Their chief grievances were that the working man had no vote. In 1838 they demanded *Universal Suffrage*, that is, the right for "every male of lawful age" to vote *Secret Ballot* at elections, and *Annual Parliaments*.

This demand for universal suffrage really meant much more. As one speaker of the times said, "If any man asked what he meant by universal suffrage, he would tell him he meant to say that every working man in the land had a right to have a good coat and hat, a good roof over his head, a good dinner upon his table, and the enjoyment of those pleasures of life which a reasonable man could desire." The Chartists wanted the vote so that they could influence Parliament to give them these things.

At the end of the eighteenth century many good people, including THOMAS CLARKSON and WILLIAM WILBERFORCE, felt that it was wrong for people to keep *slaves*. You will remember that in Queen Elizabeth's reign negroes had been taken by English seamen from Africa and sold to sugar plantation owners in the West Indies. Great profits had been made from the slave labour. People did not think it wicked to keep slaves, probably looking upon coloured people as inferior.

In 1772 it was stated that a slave could not be owned whilst in England, and after great discussion an Act stopping the English slave trade was passed 25th March, 1807,



During the eighteenth century the British Government passed laws for the treatment of slaves and by this made the trade legal. The picture above is a reproduction of a document showing how slaves were to be stowed on board ship under an Act of 1786. Many people did not agree with this trade in human beings, and in 1787 Thomas Clarkson and William Wilberforce formed a society to work for the freeing of all slaves. In 1772 it had been declared that a slave setting foot in England became free. The trade was made illegal in 1807, and from 1st August, 1834 slavery was abolished throughout the British Empire. Slavery was abolished in the United States after the bitter Civil War (1861-65).

and by 1840 slavery was abolished throughout the British Empire.

This talk about slaves abroad may have made people think of the hardships under which little children and women worked in factories in England. Children went to work as early as four years of age, worked for thirteen or fourteen hours a day, and were often cruelly beaten by "overlookers" or foremen; their wages were very low. The first Act of Parliament to improve these conditions was passed in 1802; it stated that no child should be compelled to work more than twelve hours a day nor later than 9 p m and that children should be taught "the three R's" (reading, writing, and arithmetic) in working hours. This last clause was a mockery, for there were no proper teachers or schools, and the children were too tired to learn. A better Act was passed in 1833. Children had been questioned as to their work in factories, and this is what one said—



I reside at Northgate, Huddersfield in Yorkshire. I was seven years of age when I began to work at Bradley Mill, near Huddersfield. The hours of labour were from five in the morning till eight at night, we had to eat our meals standing or otherwise. I had fourteen and a half hours' actual work when seven years of age, the wages I then received was two shillings and sixpence a week. There were three overlookers, there was a head overlooker, there was one man kept to grease the machines, and then there was one kept on purpose to strap. Strapping was the means by which children were kept at work. . . the same as strapping an old restive horse that has fallen down and will not get up.

By the Act of 1833, children under nine were forbidden to work in factories and those under thirteen were not to

work more than eight hours a day. Factory inspectors were appointed. But there were still many injustices. In 1843 Elizabeth Barrett Browning wrote a celebrated poem, "The Cry of the Children"—

"For, oh," say the children, "we are weary,
And we cannot run or leap,—
If we cared for meadows it was merely
To drop down in them and sleep
Our knees tremble sorely in the stooping,
We fall upon our faces, trying to go,
And underneath our heavy eyelids drooping,
The reddest flower would look as pale as snow
For, all day, we drag our burden tiring,
Through the coal-dark, underground,
Or all day, we drive the wheel of iron
In the factories, round and round "

Lord Ashley, the Earl of Shaftesbury, was one of the most prominent men who tried to improve the lot of the factory worker, the mine worker, and the sweep. In 1847 a further Act was passed, and since that time numerous Acts have become law, making work in factories less onerous and more humane.

List of Acts

- 1802: Addington's Act.
- 1833. No children under 9 to work in factories. Eight-hour day for those under 13.
- 1847. Eleven-hour day.
Ten-hour day for women and children.
- 1874: [1878: 1883: 1891: 1895: 1897.] .
- 1901: Factory and Workshop Act. gathered the rules of previous Acts together and dealt with cleaning of machinery, fire escapes, working hours, inspection, Saturday half-holiday, etc.
- 1911. Powers of inspection extended; rules about work done at "home" made.

1929: Control extended to include other factories.

1937: A new and extensive factory Act.

Whilst the regulations of the Factory Acts applied very largely to women and children, the men had looked after their own interests very largely by establishing TRADE UNIONS. As the name suggests, a trade union is a union of



A SCENE OUTSIDE THE GATE OF ONE OF THE OLD SCHOOLS
MORE THAN A HUNDRED YEARS AGO

Scotland had a system of National Education from as far back as 1560, but in England it is of modern growth. Schools in England were voluntary until 1870, when compulsory education was established and School Boards were set up. In 1891 an Act was passed reducing or abolishing fees. By the Act of 1902 the work of elementary education was put in the hands of borough and county councils, and money for education could be raised from the rates. In 1918 another important Act was passed extending education, but all its clauses were not introduced.

By courtesy of the Director and Secretary, Victoria and Albert Museum.

people who work in the same trade, and it has for its purpose mutual help and protection and improvement of conditions of work, hours, wages, etc., for its members.

Towards the close of the eighteenth century workmen had tried to combine together to improve their working conditions, but difficulties were put in their way. By the Combination Acts, passed early in the nineteenth century, workmen were forbidden to meet together. Many still met in secret. However, in 1824 these Acts were repealed and a law was enacted which permitted unions to be formed. The first unions were confined to single factories, but later men who worked at the same trade joined together.

When a number of workmen agree together to stop work for the purpose of obtaining an improvement in their wages or conditions of work this is called a *Strike*. Under early laws, workmen were not permitted to do this, and it was not until 1875 that strikes were allowed. The law said that men in a body could do what one man was lawfully allowed to do. It was not wrong for one man to stay away from work, and therefore workmen could now strike if they desired to do so.

Trade unions increased in number and size. They collected money with which to help their members not only during strikes but in periods of sickness and unemployment.

In 1868, trade unionists first thought of getting some of their members elected as Members of Parliament. (Note that this was the year after the second Reform Act, by which many town workers got the vote.) In 1874 the first two trade-union members were elected—Alexander MacDonald for Stafford and Thomas Burt for Morpeth. Both were miners. From that time on, the membership of the House of Commons included many more trade unionists.

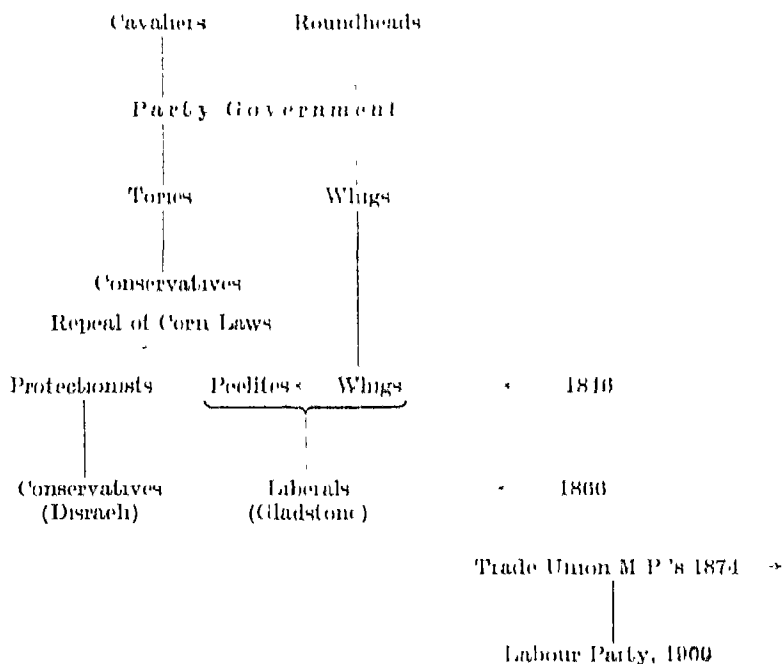
At first these trade-union M.P.'s worked mainly in co-operation with the Liberal Party. In 1900 a definite step was taken to form a new party in the House of Commons.

In 1906 twenty-nine "Labour" members were returned to Westminster. The twenty-two trade-union members already in the House now began to co-operate with the new Labour members. Thus did working men bring their grievances before the House of Commons.

In 1923 the Labour Party was actually the second largest party in the House of Commons, and in 1924 the first Labour Government took office and Britain had a Labour Prime Minister.

To-day most of the workers belong to a trade union whose main concern is to protect workers in the industry. It does not follow, however, that every trade unionist is a supporter of the Labour Party.

EARLY GROWTH OF POLITICAL PARTIES



EXERCISES

1. Why is it necessary for rules about hours and conditions of work to be made by a government?
2. Why should the workers be able to put their points of view about such matters?
3. Why is it necessary for Factory Inspectors to be appointed?
4. Find out which department of the government deals with Factory Laws
5. What laws have been passed recently which make further improvements in conditions, ways, and hours, etc.?

1832	Liverpool and Manchester Railway
Reform Act	opened 1830
(Elections)	1834
	Factory Acts
	1835
	Town Councils
	elected by
	ratepayers
	1836
	Duty on Newspapers
	reduced to 1d.

23. TRANSPORT IN THE NINETEENTH AND TWENTIETH CENTURIES

TRANSPORT is the business of carrying people and things from one place to another. All through the ages and in all countries of the world transport of one sort or another has been used. In early days men themselves were their own carriers; then came the use of pack animals, sledges, and rafts. The wheeled vehicle was the next stage (no one knows what pioneer made the first wheel—a section of a tree trunk may have given him the idea). On the water, simple dug-out canoes or coracles were used, then came ships with sails.

In this series we have seen pictures of the various kinds of beasts and vehicles used through the ages for transport. With the increase in trade, greater attention was paid to the roads of the country, for quick transport had become a necessity. In the reign of George III, for the first time since the days of the Romans, attempts were made to lay good roads. Those who constructed the “turnpike” roads collected tolls from those who used them. (The name *turnpike* was given to these roads because at the ends of sections were turnpikes or gates which were only opened when a toll was paid.) Thus the roads of the country were improved by different people who got rich from the tolls. Probably in your district you can still see remains of toll-gates.

Three men out of many might be mentioned as pioneers in road construction—

JOHN METCALE, who was born in Yorkshire in 1717 and became blind at the age of 6, was a remarkable man



ROBERT STEPHENSON (1803-59)

From a portrait in the Science Museum, South Kensington

Although handicapped in this way he superintended the construction of hundreds of miles of roads.

JOHN LOUDON MACADAM was born at Ayr in 1756 and spent some of his early years in America. When working at the dockyards at Falmouth he experimented in roadmaking. Large flat stones had been used previously, but Macadam

believed that small, hard, pointed stones would bind together better and would be less likely to be thrown out of place by traffic. Macadam's method was to have layers of these stones, the under layers being made of larger stones than those on top. When you see a steam-roller at work you should think of Macadam, for a road made in the way he invented is still called a "macadamized" road.

THOMAS TELFORD, a Scottish mason, was born in 1757. He became a civil engineer and built roads and bridges (many of which are still in use) in many parts of the country and constructed canals and docks. Telford was one of the greatest of road engineers and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

FIRST RAILWAYS. Further improvement of the roads was stopped for a time with the introduction of the railway locomotive. After the invention of the steam engine it could not be long before some one designed a vehicle to be driven by a steam engine. Many experiments were made. Trevithick in Cornwall made a curious engine which he drove along the roads at night at five miles an hour. The natives thought it was a dragon or a work of the devil as it travelled along, making a great noise and throwing out sparks.

It was GEORGE STEVENSON, however, who developed and improved upon the work of the pioneers. He had opened a line to carry coal from Stockton to Darlington in 1825. On 1st October, 1829, his "Rocket" won the prize for the best locomotive to be shown on the new railway from Liverpool to Manchester. This engine was only 21 feet long and weighed with its tender about $7\frac{1}{2}$ tons. It ran on its trial trip at twenty-nine miles an hour. The triumph of the railway was now assured.

As showing the improvement quickly made in railway transport it is worth noting that in 1838 the Great Western Railway's locomotive *North Star*, weighing 21 tons, pulled

80 tons from Maidenhead to Paddington at a speed of thirty miles an hour.

Your geography books will show you how extensive the railway systems of the world are to-day. The streamline



DOBIBIN'S ORIGINAL SKETCH OF THE OPENING OF THE STOCKTON
AND DARLINGTON RAILWAY, 1825

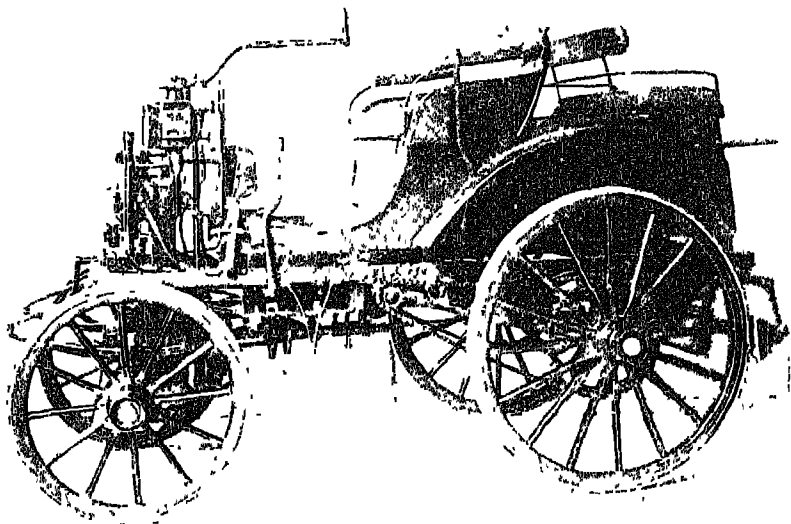
From the sketch in the Science Museum, South Kensington.

trains of the L.N.E.R. can now travel at over a hundred miles an hour.

ROAD TRANSPORT. The success of the railways put the stage coaches out of business, but of course, carts and wagons still drew heavy loads along the highways. Certain engineers, including Trevithick, invented steam coaches, and in 1830 one travelled on the road from Gloucester to Cheltenham at a speed of twelve miles an hour. But people did not take to them and the toll-keeper charged so much for using the roads that it did not pay to run steam cars.

A curious law passed in 1865 did not encourage the use

either of steam cars or of the motor cars which were invented later. By this law, every locomotive on the highway had to be preceded by a man on foot carrying a red flag, and the speed of the vehicle was never to be more than four

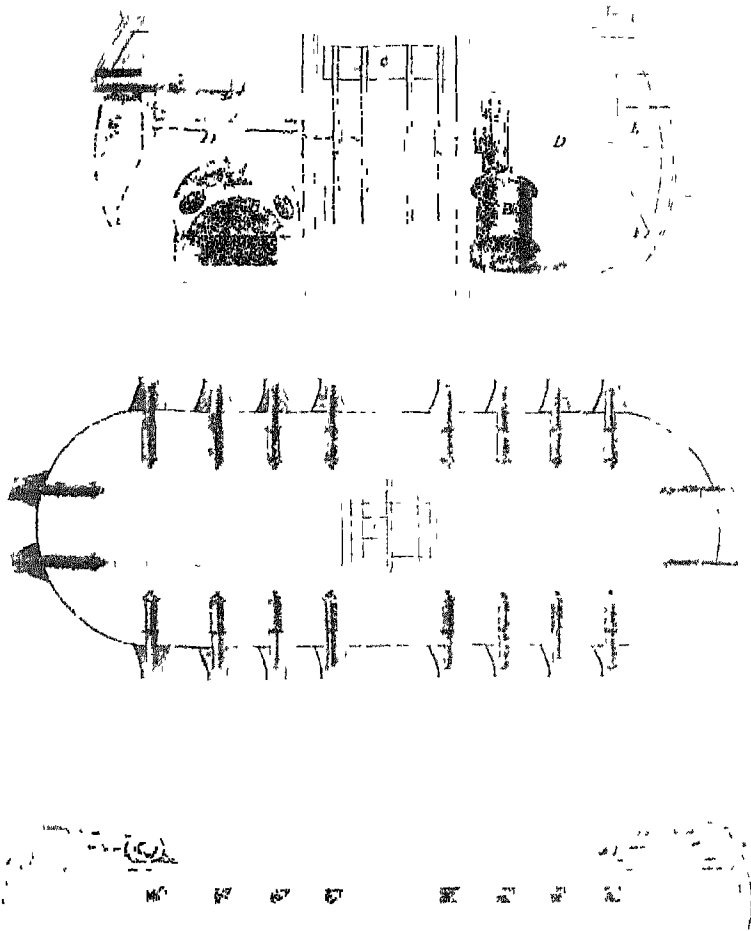


AN EARLY MOTOR CAR—PANHARD, 1891

From an exhibit in the Science Museum, South Kensington

miles an hour in the country and two miles an hour in the town! On the continent of Europe there were no such stupid rules, and soon, under the leadership of Daimler, a Frenchman, and Benz, a German, cars were being swiftly driven along the continental roads. Some Englishmen bought these cars but found it irksome when they were not allowed to make proper use of them.

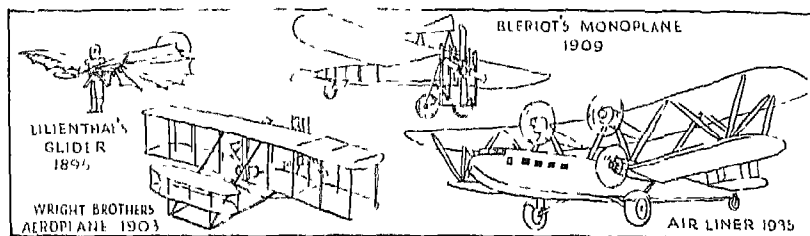
In 1896 this Act was repealed and cars were allowed to use the roads without the flag-waver. In 1906 cars could



A DRAWING OF FULTON'S SHOWING THE DESIGN OF ONE
OF HIS SHIPS

- | | | | |
|---|------------------|---------------------|----------------------------|
| A | Her boiler | C = The water wheel | EE = Her wooden walls |
| B | The steam engine | DD = Gun deck | FF = Draught of water 9 ft |

By courtesy of the Director of the Science Museum, South Kensington



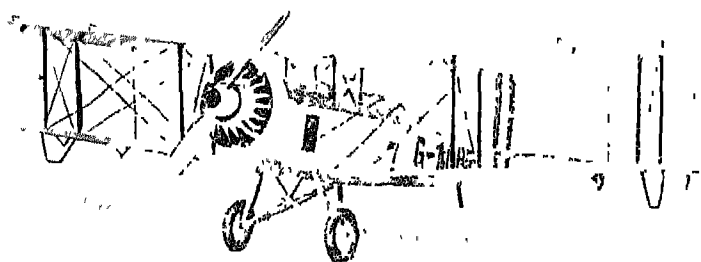
travel a little faster and a law was passed making twenty miles an hour the maximum speed permitted on the high road. Since then various laws have been passed to control the speed of cars. To-day there are so many motors of various types, put to such variety of uses, that the roads are hardly sufficient for the traffic they carry, and special rules have to be made for drivers and pedestrians. All children should learn about the rules of the road and study the *Highway Code* issued in 1935.

SHIPS were once propelled only by oars or by the power of the wind. To-day they are driven along by mighty engines. The first steam boats were fitted with paddle-wheels, and probably that built by a Frenchman in 1775 was the first. Symington and Miller experimented with similar boats in Scotland about 1790, and Fulton, an American, who was introduced to Symington, built a passenger steamer which travelled successfully on the Hudson in 1807. Bell built the *Comet* in 1812 and carried people across the Clyde. Channel steamers began to run in 1820, whilst boats under their own steam sailed to Ireland in 1821. The first Transatlantic trip took place in 1838, when both the *Great Western* and the *Sirius* successfully crossed the Atlantic. The Cunard Line was founded in 1839 to run steamships to and from America.

Up to about 1850, steamships were built mainly of wood, though the first iron ship was constructed in 1818. About 1860 steel began to be used instead of iron. Great Britain

made rapid progress in shipbuilding because her foundries and furnaces produced the world's finest steel.

Early ships had been driven by engines which turned paddle-wheels. On a warship these wheels could, of course, be easily destroyed; therefore a *screw* placed at the back was used to propel the vessel. Two or even four screws are



MODEL OF A WESTLAND WALLACE AIRCRAFT, 1933

From an exhibit in the Science Museum, South Kensington

Reproduced by permission of the Westland Aircraft Works, Yeovil

now generally used. One other invention important in the history of the steamship is that of the *turbine*. In an ordinary engine the piston goes up and down and this "reciprocating" movement is used to turn a shaft. The turbine itself rotates in *one* direction and turns the propeller shaft, so that little power is wasted. Turbines are very often fitted on British ships—the record-breaking liner, the *Queen Mary*, is driven by them. Many large vessels are now driven by oil-burning engines of the type invented by Diesel, a German engineer; these are known as *motor-ships*.

AIR TRANSPORT. In early times, men must often have watched the birds flying and wished they could imitate these graceful creatures. It was two Frenchmen, the brothers

Montgolfier, who first made a balloon filled with hot air which rose to 80 feet. In the same year, 1783, a balloon filled with the light but inflammable gas, hydrogen, travelled nearly thirty miles. Balloons must go where the wind blows them. Then, in 1852, a Frenchman made the first airship by fitting an engine to a balloon. Many huge airships have



TRANSPORT IN THE EARLY TWENTIETH CENTURY
From the diorama in the Science Museum, South Kensington

been made during the present century, and the German *Graf Zeppelin* flew the Atlantic many times in 1936.

The *aeroplane* is now more in favour than the lighter-than-air craft. Experiments were made long ago to invent aeroplanes with flapping wings, but these would never fly, and in all successful designs the wings are fixed and powerful engines drive the aeroplane forward. (In the autogiro, rotating "vaness" take the place of fixed wings.) One model plane flew 22 yards in 1848, but the first real flight was made in America by the Wright Brothers in 1903. The English Channel was flown in 1909 by Blériot, and in the same year Farman flew well over a hundred miles. During the Great War of 1914-18 aeroplanes were first used for fighting, and great improvements in aircraft resulted. In

1919 two Britishers, Alcock and Brown, first flew across the Atlantic. To-day aeroplanes travel to all parts of the earth and fast 'planes can speed along at over 400 miles an hour

EXERCISES

- 1 What various types of transport are used in your area?
- 2 What fares are charged per mile per passenger on each type of vehicle? Can you explain the differences?
- 3 By what routes are goods carried? Try to find the charges for carrying 1 ton of coal by rail and a similar weight by lorry say for 100 miles. What classes of goods can be carried most cheaply by train? What kind of goods might best be carried by aeroplane?
- 4 Find the dates on which
 - (a) the first railway was built to your town and discover the dates of any developments,
 - (b) the first trams, buses, etc., were introduced
- 5 Give any details of the making of new roads in your district. Are there the remains of (a) any Roman roads, (b) Toll-roads, (c) Toll-gates?
- 6 Name the Classes of Roads in your area and show on a sketch map where they are situated. Keep a list of the new speed records set up (a) at sea, (b) in the air, (c) on the motor track, (d) on the railways

24. THE GROWTH OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

AND THE FOUNDING OF

THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS

WE have seen in previous chapters how it was that the British had possessions in India, Canada, South Africa, and in many isles and corners of the world, but we have learnt nothing yet about the island continent of Australia.

If you look at the names on a map of the country you will get some glimmering of the history of the country. Probably the first Europeans to visit Australia were Portuguese, then, in 1606, *Torres*, a Spaniard, sailed through the strait now named after him. *Duchmen* surveyed the coast about 1628, and in 1664 the continent was called New Holland by the Dutch Government.

In 1770 Captain Cook, sailing in the ship *Endeavour*, surveyed the east coast and took possession of it in the name of Britain. Nineteen years later Bligh, another Englishman, surveyed the north-east coast. In 1788 a penal settlement was founded at Port Jackson and here prisoners from Britain were transported. Then colonists began to go out to Australia to live and in time they had the penal settlement closed, and finally the various states were founded: (1) New South Wales, (2) Western Australia, 1829; (3) South Australia, 1836, (4) Victoria, 1851, (5) Queensland, 1859. (Notice that *Victoria* and *Queensland* were named after Queen Victoria, who came to the throne in 1837.) The discovery of gold in 1851 attracted thousands of prospectors who later settled down.

NEW ZEALAND was first discovered by Tasman in 1642 but it was Captain Cook who circumnavigated it in 1769 and 1774. The first Englishmen to live there were missionaries,

In 1833 New Zealand was given limited powers of government and placed under New South Wales, but in 1841 it was made a separate colony and in 1852 was given a government of its own.

CANADA By the American War of Independence the country now known as the United States of America broke away from Britain. Some people thought that Canada would do the same later. This was the more likely, seeing that so many French-speaking people lived in Eastern Canada. There were, however, many Loyalists who had left the United States and gone to live in Ontario. These new Canadian colonists wanted some kind of self-government. The English Government at home were loath to grant this, for it was fairly certain that the French-speaking colonists would want the same freedom. At any rate, two provinces were created—Upper and Lower Canada—each with its own Assembly or Parliament. The scheme did not work too well, though in 1812, when war with U.S.A. broke out, the colonists showed their loyalty to Britain. Twenty-five years later rebellions against Britain broke out in French and British Canada. These were stamped out and an inquiry was held. It was due to the wisdom of Lord Durham, who conducted this inquiry, that in 1840 the CANADIAN ACT OF UNION was passed. This was the first step towards true self-government in the British dominions.

Now if you could take a train journey across Canada—a journey which would take days—you would find that the great Rocky Mountains form a barrier between East and West Canada. Across this barrier, on the shores of the Pacific was another British colony. British Columbia was really a part of Canada, but because of its position it could have little to do with the Eastern states. There was no railway then—acoplanes were not even thought of. The Prime Minister, Sir John Macdonald, however, determined to get *all* the states of Canada to join the Union. After a

great struggle he secured this, but not until British Columbia had insisted that a railway stretching from the east to the west of Canada should be built. This, the Canadian Pacific Railway, is an historic sign of the great union celebrated in the *British North America Act* (1867) by which the DOMINION OF CANADA came into being. Of course, the railway was not built at once, but on 7th November, 1885, it was completed.

The Dominion of Canada has advanced rapidly as a country since 1885. New provinces were founded and trade treaties were made. During the Great War of 1914-18 over 400,000 Canadians fought for Britain. When the peace treaty was signed Canada's representative signed on behalf of CANADA. This was the first occasion on which the independence of Canada was recognized. The dominion had at last reached nationhood.

AFRICA. The continent of Africa occupies an area of 11,500,000 square miles. The nations of Europe first took note of it in the fifteenth century when Portuguese seamen at length found the route to India round the Cape of Good Hope. The Dutch held the Cape of Good Hope and the south of the Continent till the Napoleonic Wars and many Dutch farmers called BOERS settled there. The British seized the Cape and after the wars were over bought it from the Dutch for a large sum of money. The Boers, annoyed at this, made a *trek* from Cape Colony and founded two states, the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony, to the north. Later, quarrels arose between the Boer farmers and people who had gone to their states to get gold and diamonds. These troubles led to the Boer War (1899-1902). The Boers were tough opponents and knew how to fight "guerilla" warfare in difficult country—pluckily they held out but were eventually defeated. The British government, four years after the war ended, gave the Boers back self-government, and in 1909 the whole of the British Colonies in South



VERY EARLY VIEW OF CITY OF TORONTO KING STREET

Toronto is now a city which will compare with the finest cities of the world
This picture gives an idea of the beginnings of civilization in the Colonies

Africa joined together to form the UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA. Strange as it may seem, the first Prime Minister of the Union was the former Boer general Louis Botha—a stern foe but a stalwart friend.

Many pioneers from Britain had explored the lands north of Cape Colony. On a map to-day you see Bechuanaland and Rhodesia: the latter colony is named after Cecil Rhodes, whose dream it had been to extend British power as far north as possible. Through Rhodesia runs the mighty Zambesi River with the Victoria Falls, one of the grandest sights in the world. It was the missionary Livingstone who first explored this part of central Africa and claimed it for Britain. Other portions of Africa under British rule are—

Gambia, founded in 1618, made a separate colony, 1888.

Sierra Leone, founded in 1618, made a separate colony, 1874.

Gold Coast, founded in 1618, made a separate colony, 1874.

Nigeria: Lagos bought 1861, territory extended to form separate colony, 1886

The Sudan came under British rule after the 1898 campaign of Lord Kitchener. The Sudanese had long given trouble to the Egyptian government, and in 1883 the Mad Mullah heavily defeated an army sent from Egypt to quell him. Gordon was sent as Governor-General of the Sudan, and in 1884 was told to withdraw all the garrisons there by stages. Gordon disobeyed orders, stayed, and was surrounded and killed in 1885 before he could be relieved. The conquest of the Sudan was then begun and completed under Kitchener.

EGYPT holds an important position at the north-eastern corner of Africa. It has had a continuous history for thousands of years. Here we can only mention incidents since the time of Napoleon. Then Egypt was semi-independent, having shaken off the control of the Turks.

Napoleon occupied the north of Egypt but was driven out by the British. Later, arrangements were made for an Egyptian to rule as Viceroy under Turkey. In 1861 the price of cotton increased owing to the Civil War over slavery in the United States, and large areas of cotton were planted in Egypt and riches flowed to the country. Egypt borrowed money from France and Britain to pay for further improvements, but in 1878 the extravagance of the ruler, Ismail Pasha, pointed to the fact that Egypt was on the verge of bankruptcy, no longer was interest being paid on the loans. Ismail Pasha was therefore deposed and two advisers, one French and one English, went out to assist the new ruler. A mutiny broke out in the Egyptian army and ultimately spread so that a British admiral had to fire on rioters at Alexandria. France asked Britain to subdue Egypt, which she did in 1882. Britain would have then left Egypt, but trouble began in the Sudan. It was then that an army was sent to quell the Mad Mullah, as described above.



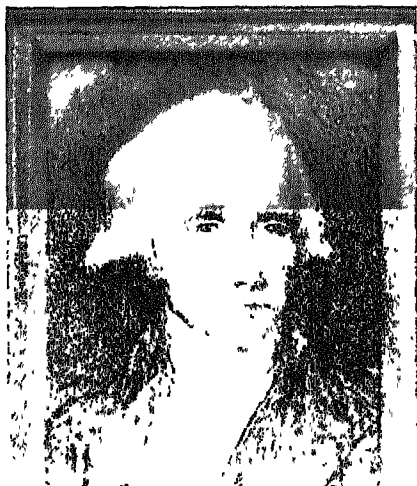
DERVISH, 1880

Before the Sudan was brought under British control the government of Egypt was put in order. In the work of improving Egypt's financial condition Lord Cromer played the chief part, and it was he who planned the campaign which led to the conquest of the Sudan.

To-day Egypt is an independent state but allied to Britain and with agreements for the maintenance of a body of British troops and a detachment of the Air Force to guard the Suez Canal.

THE INDIAN EMPIRE. During the Seven Years War, the

British under Clive had won a great victory at Plassey. From this time on, the British East India Company was supreme. Trade increased and British money was spent to



WARREN HASTINGS, 1732-1818

Fought with Clive and, after Plassey, worked for East India Company. In 1772, President of the Council of Bengal. In 1773, named Governor General of India. Served India well till 1785. Accused of acting unwisely - hiring troops, etc. Tried but set free seven years and Hastings was acquitted. His great services to India were finally recognized.

By courtesy of the Director and Secretary, Victoria and Albert Museum

bring some of the advantages of modern inventions to India. Further, the enemies of India on the frontiers of the north and north-west were defeated and checked in various minor wars.

The British traders did not attempt to interfere with the customs and religions of the people. There were, however, many natives who looked upon white men with suspicion and would have liked to see them driven out of the land.

In 1857 a mutiny in the Indian Army broke out. There was some dissatisfaction with British rule amongst the native soldiers, and when someone whispered in the

compounds and streets that a new type of cartridge was greased with cow and pig fat trouble began, for the cow was sacred to the Hindu and must not be slain, while the pig is an unclean animal to the Mohammedan. As the cartridges had to be bitten, it seemed that the religious belief of the Sepoys (native soldiers) of either religion were being set at naught. Nana Sahib, a descendant of the Moguls (see

Chapter 10) was proclaimed "Emperor" and put himself at the head of the mutineers.

The number of white men in India was very small, and soon they were in danger. At Cawnpore, women and children were massacred; at Lucknow a small body of soldiers was besieged in the city. Loyal Indian troops and fresh detachments were sent out, the beleaguered garrisons were relieved and the Mutiny ended.

People could now see that a great disaster had only just been prevented, and that India must be brought under the direct control of the British Government. In 1858, therefore, a Viceroy was sent out to rule, and in London the India Office was established as a department of the government. On the 1st January, 1877, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India. Upper Burma was added to the Indian Empire in 1886 (but separated by the Act of 1935). From time to time frontier wars still have to be fought to keep peace on the borders of India, especially in the North-west Province set up by Lord Curzon when Viceroy.

During the Great War more than half a million native soldiers served the Empire. Statesmen after the war began to ask how India could be given a greater measure of self government. Some native leaders like Gandhi wanted India to be ruled by Indians. After a great deal of discussion an agreement has been reached, and it is hoped that India will in coming years take over more and more of her own government.

IRELAND. Earlier in this book we spoke of the beginning of the talk about HOME RULE for Ireland. Catholic Emancipation brought many Irishmen to Westminster to champion the demand for a separate Irish Parliament. Then we saw that in 1845 the potato crop in Ireland failed and people were starving. Corn was brought in from abroad. When the Corn Laws were repealed, this did not help the Irish, for

they had relied much on selling their wheat to England. Now foreign corn was cheaper than Irish. So bad did trade become that hundreds of thousands of fine Irishmen and women, many with families, emigrated to Canada and the United States of America to escape starvation.

In 1865 a society called the *Fenians* was started by Irishmen in the United States. The name was taken from the *Finn*, the old mythical fighters of Ireland. Their purpose, they said, was to free Ireland from the British. They actually tried to march into Canada and a revolt of Fenians took place in Ireland. All failed, but they showed that trouble was brewing. In 1885 there were as many as eighty-six Nationalists, that is, members who wanted Home Rule, returned to the British Parliament, and Gladstone the Prime Minister decided to try to pass a Bill for Home Rule. In this he did not succeed, for no one could agree about buying out the British landowners. The question of Home Rule was becoming a difficult one for the British Parliament; it occupied too much time and divided parties.

In 1912 Mr. Asquith, the Prime Minister, tried to introduce another Home Rule Bill, and now further serious trouble arose. This time from the Northern part of Ireland, Ulster. The men of Ulster said they would resist Home Rule to the very last, and by force of arms if necessary. They were Protestants and largely artisans and manufacturers, whilst the people of the remainder of Ireland were Roman Catholics, workers on the land and comparatively poor. They said that Ulstermen would never consent to be ruled from Dublin. Both sides began to raise volunteers, supply them with arms, and drill them for battle. No lasting agreement had been reached by 1914, when the Great War broke out, and for a time put an end to the fight for Home Rule.

The Irish Nationalists resolved at once to support Britain in the war, and thousands of Irishmen flocked to

the colours. Unfortunately, in 1916, certain members of the *Sinn Féin* party in Ireland decided that this was the moment to rebel, and, by means of German help, to secure Irish independence. Sir Roger Casement, their leader, was arrested, tried for high treason, and executed.

When the Great War was over, the struggle between British and Irish broke out anew and continued till 1920, when a scheme was brought forward to divide Ireland into two parts. Ulster still sent members to the British Parliament and was considered a part of Great Britain. The remainder of the country was to be known as THE IRISH FREE STATE with its own Parliament at Dublin and sending no members to Westminster.

The trouble in Ireland is not yet over, for there is a strong party in the Free State which would like to see a United Ireland, entirely independent of the British Empire. Others are opposed to this, while Ulstermen would resist it with their blood.

THE COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS. The growth of the Empire has been in some ways like the growth of a family. Children, when they grow older, will marry and set up homes of their own. The parents will visit them, talk with them, give them advice if they want it, but the children will want to decide for themselves what they shall do in their own homes. They are old enough to take *responsibility*. So with the countries belonging to the British Empire.

The word *empire* comes from a Latin word meaning "full and far-reaching sovereignty," and indicates that all land of the empire is under one central government. While the nations attached to Britain were growing up, the term *British Empire* might be applied to them. The name, however, is not so apt when countries attached to an empire are given a large measure of self-government and independence. So to-day it is usual to speak of the *British Commonwealth of Nations*—a phrase which indicates

union under the Crown but independence of the British government

All parts of our Empire have not yet gained full self-government—this is but a matter of time—but Australia, South Africa, Canada, and New Zealand are now practically independent governments with separate representatives in the League of Nations. The British Empire is now a federation of individual states, bound together by common allegiance to the Sovereign, common trading interests, and a bond of sentiment formed through the years of history, of wars and of peaceful development.

EXERCISES

1 Draw an outline map of Australia and indicate the various places visited by explorers

2 Show how Canada and Australia have gained a large measure of self-government

3 What advantage has the Canadian Pacific Railway been to Canada?

4 What benefits can (a) the motherland give to her colonies, (b) the colonies give to the motherland?

5 Find the difference between Dominions and dependencies

6 Why do large nations desire colonies?

7 Outline the history of the Union of South Africa

8 Show how the Indian Empire has grown up. Why is it more difficult for India to obtain self-government than it was for Canada or Australia? Find how steps were being taken in 1937 to give India self-government

9 Why is the government of Ireland so difficult?

10 Name any empires of which you have learnt in history and see how these are similar to and different from the British Commonwealth of Nations

1837

VICTORIA (Queen at 18)

1870

Chartists 1839	Revolution in Europe 1848		
Penny Post 1839	Crimean War (1854-56)	Alma Balaclava Inkerman Florence Nightingale	Indian Mutiny 1857
Repeal of Corn Laws 1846	1851 Great Exhibition in Hyde Park		Second Reform Act 1867



QUEEN VICTORIA

*By courtesy of the Director and
Secretary, Victoria and Albert
Museum*

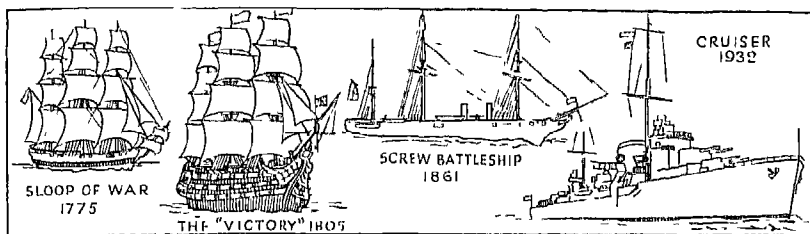


THE OPENING OF THE GREAT EXHIBITION IN HYDE PARK,
1ST MAY, 1851

By courtesy of the Director and Secretary, Victoria and Albert Museum

Education Act 1870	Third Reform Act 1884-5	1890 spheres of influence in Africa defined	Jameson Raid 1895
Empress of India 1876	Sudan Wars 1884-5		Boer War (1899-1902)
	1885		
	Gordon killed		
	1897-9		
	Kitchener conquers Sudan		

Queen Victoria came to the throne in 1837 when she was only 18. She was the daughter of Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III. On 10th February, 1840, she married her cousin Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg. After her marriage, Queen Victoria took a greater part in the government. Prince Albert was clever and able, taking a great interest in art and science. The Great Exhibition of 1851, held in Hyde Park, was largely due to his influence. (The huge glass building was later moved to South London and known as the Crystal Palace. It was destroyed by fire in 1936.) The Prince Consort died of typhoid in 1867, and the queen was heartbroken. After this sad event, Victoria appeared little in public. She, however, carried out her duties as queen. She died in 1901, having reigned over sixty years. Queen Victoria was conscientious, religious, and able, and her name stands high amongst the roll of British sovereigns. Her eldest daughter married the heir to the German throne, the Kaiser, William II, was her grandson. Victoria was succeeded by her eldest son, who ruled as Edward VII.



25. THE GREAT WAR

EARLIER in this book we saw that after the Napoleonic War new nations began to arise in Europe. Germany, under Bismarck, victorious in the war of 1870, became more powerful than ever. Not only did she increase her army and begin to build up an empire outside her own borders, but she developed her factories and workshops. Her population was growing rapidly. It seemed necessary for her to extend her boundaries. She began to build a big navy. After 1870 there were no great wars for many years, but the *Great Powers*, as the large nations of Europe were called, steadily increased their armies and navies, being suspicious of each other and fearing sudden attack.

In order to help each other in time of need the leading powers of Europe began to make agreements together. Thus Germany, Austria, and Italy had promised, by the Triple Alliance of 1882, to stand by one another, while France had an agreement with Russia, and Britain had promised under certain conditions to aid France. This was a dangerous position, for with large armies and navies and jealousy between nations a great war might begin from a comparatively small cause—and this is what actually occurred in 1914.

Now we must learn to know the difference between the *cause* for something happening and the *excuse* for beginning it. If a man wishes to quarrel with another because he is jealous of him he can soon find an excuse for quarrelling.

So it is between nations, and you will find examples of this in the newspapers to-day.

When, on 28th June, 1914, a young Serb murdered an Austrian Archduke at Belgrade, few people thought this would lead to a world war. It did, however, and these are the reasons—

1. The Serb killed the Austrian because the Serbs hated the way in which the Austrian government oppressed those of Slav race under its rule.

2. Austria made up her mind to punish Serbia for the murder and to crush rebellion once and for all. She, therefore, ordered Serbia to agree to certain things which would have injured Serbia's independence as a nation

- 3 Serbia agreed that an inquiry should be held, but said that Austria's demands should be placed before the Court at the Hague. Austria rejected this reply.

- 4 Russia had already said she would support Serbia if Austria's demands were unreasonable.

5. Germany agreed to support Austria in whatever claims she made against Serbia.

- 6 France was bound to assist her ally Russia if attacked.

7. Germany thought a decisive blow would be to strike quickly at her old enemy France. To do this her army would have to cross Belgium, since the frontier between France and Belgium was much less strongly fortified

- 8 Britain was bound by treaty to support Belgium (see Chapter 18), but she stayed her hand until the Germans had actually crossed into Belgium and attacked Liege. She had also promised to give naval assistance to France if the German fleet attacked the French coast.

The British ministers worked hard to prevent the coming conflict, but Germany's mind was made up. An ultimatum sent to Germany on 4th August, 1914, was ignored, and war was then declared by Great Britain upon the Central Powers of Europe. Italy decided to

remain neutral at first, though she was pledged to help Germany.

There is no space here to give the whole story of the Great War, which spread ultimately to practically every nation of the world. The German troops marched through Belgium, smashing the resistance of the small but plucky Belgian army, while powerful siege guns destroyed the fortifications of Liege and Antwerp. The sweep towards Paris began, to be checked first by the French army and a British Expeditionary Force at Mons, and finally—only forty miles from the capital—at the great Battle of the Marne. For nearly four years the armies faced one another in a ding-dong struggle largely fought in trenches. On the eastern front the Russians entered Germany, but met a terrible defeat at Tannenberg, and were finally driven out and Russia was invaded. When Revolution broke out in Russia in 1917 there was no longer any help from that nation. Turkey joined Germany and fierce fighting took place in the Dardanelles, where the Allies tried without success to force a way to Constantinople. On the sea the British navy held the upper hand and protected the trade routes along which ships were bringing food and munitions. German submarines hazarded themselves and attacked shipping, bringing danger of starvation to the British Isles. Aeroplanes and airships were used by both sides for bombing. Then in the autumn of 1918, after the failure of a desperate German offensive in the spring, the tide turned for Britain and her Allies. Little food and material could get into Germany because of the close blockade of the Allied fleets. Italy and Japan were fighting for the Allies, and then, largely through the efforts of President Wilson, the United States of America began to send troops. In 1918 the allied armies were unified under the command of Marshal Foch, and in a brilliant series of offensives swept to victory. Starvation and revolution broke the morale of

the German and Austrian troops, Turkey and Bulgaria, defeated in the Balkans, called for peace, and on 11th November, 1918, a general ARMISTICE was signed. In the following June peace was made at Versailles in the very



ENTRANCE TO THE WAR MEMORIAL. EDINBURGH CASTLE

By courtesy of the L M S

room where the Germans had forced the French to sign the treaty that concluded the war of 1870.

THE PEACE TREATY

Every day history is being made. What happens to-day is very largely the result of what was done in the past. Think about this when you read your newspaper. By the conditions of the Versailles Treaty—

Germany, from which the Kaiser had fled in the last days of the war, became a republic. She lost Alsace-Lorraine

and much territory now included in Poland, as well as her whole colonial empire; her navy was surrendered and her army was practically abolished. The mighty nation had fallen very low.

Austria also became a republic, Hungary was made independent, and the rich state of Bohemia was separated and became part of Czechoslovakia.

Serbia was given large territories at Austria's expense, united with Montenegro, and renamed Yugoslavia.

Turkey had to surrender all her lands in Europe except Constantinople, whilst Syria, Palestine, and Mesopotamia were freed from the Turks and placed under mandate.

Russia. In 1917 the Russians had revolted against their Tsar, or Emperor, and after a period of revolt and terrorism very similar to the French Revolution a new kind of government was set up. The country was no longer known as an empire but was called the *Union of Soviet Socialist Republics*, often written in the shorter form "U.S.S.R." The word "Soviet" is a Russian one and means a council. By the Soviet system of government, local committees are elected which send delegates to larger bodies, until finally the All-Russian Congress of Soviets forms the central "Parliament." From this Congress the Central Executive Committee—the real governing body—is elected. The President of the Republic is head of this Committee and of the Government and is virtually a dictator. The main business of the government appears to have been to organize the nation and to provide the necessary factories, etc., which will give Russia a leading place in the world's trading countries. There is, too, an endeavour to make other peoples believe in this method of government.

26. THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

You all know what a football league is. A number of teams band together and arrange fixtures so that pleasant and profitable games between the members of the league can take place. If there is any disagreement the representatives of members of the league can meet together and settle the dispute. All agree to be bound by the decision of the league committee.

From 1914 to 1918 the horrors of war had revealed themselves over a great part of the world, and many men began to wonder whether civilized people could not find a better way of settling their disputes than by war. One of the leaders who thought about this was Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States of America. During the War some one had said it was "a war to end war," and in 1919, with this ideal of no more war before the nations, a section, called the *Covenant of the League* was put in the Peace Treaty outlining a scheme for creating a LEAGUE OF NATIONS with its headquarters at Geneva.

The members of the League bound themselves not to employ force to settle a dispute until they had brought their case before arbitrators (judges) appointed by the League, had waited six months for the decision, and then allowed another three months to pass. Thus, it was hoped, the hand of war would be stayed.

The representatives of thirty-two nations signed the Covenant and other nations agreed to it later. The defeated states were not allowed to join at first, but Germany was admitted in 1926. The United States of America never joined the League, because many American statesmen felt that it would be best for America to keep out of European affairs.

The League has a Secretary-General and other officials. The general League Committee is called the *Assembly*. It meets annually in September and consists of three representatives from each country belonging to the League. The *Council* of the League meets at least *four* times a year and consists of the representatives of some fourteen nations—each of a number of the larger nations always have a representative whilst the remaining members are elected from time to time from amongst the other nations. The Council is *the* important body and it has the power of settling disputes.

Then there is the INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION which is endeavouring to improve conditions of work, wages, and hours of workers in lands all over the world. It is of little use if good wages are paid in one country while another pays low wages and compels long hours of work, so that goods can be produced more cheaply. The country paying well might find its workers unemployed. The I L O wishes to get the same level of working conditions in all countries.

Years ago when treaties were made between nations they were often kept secret. Now members of the League must register treaties with the League Secretary. Thus do all countries learn of agreements between each other. More than two thousand such treaties have already been registered.

REFUGEES. One of the earliest duties taken up by the League was to care for and convey back to their own homes the large number of people who had sought Refuge in other countries during the war, and the Prisoners of War who had been simply told they were free. These had neither food nor money and there were many of them ill. The refugees and prisoners were liable to take back terrible diseases with them, but special camps were opened to cure the sick and prevent the spread of epidemics.

Now that this work is finished, officers of the League spend time in studying disease and give advice to all countries on the best way to fight such evils. Others stop the sale of drugs like opium and cocaine, which seriously injure the health of those who become victims to them.

After the Great War, certain possessions and colonies were removed from the care of the defeated states. It was not thought that these countries were *yet* in a position to know how best to govern themselves and become independent. They were therefore put under the charge of different members of the League who were given MANDATES (mandate = a command) to rule them.

Now you may ask, "*Has* the League of Nations prevented war?" The answer is "Yes" and "No." In 1925 a war between Greece and Bulgaria was definitely settled when, without a League, war would have been almost certain. Other serious disputes, such as that arising from the murder of the Yugoslavian king, Alexander I, have been dealt with by the Council or by the Court of International Justice

On the other hand, there have been occasions when the League has not been able to interfere. This is because she has not had the power to do so without calling upon members to fight perhaps another great war. In the case of the football league, there may be one team that breaks the rules and refuses to obey the orders of the league committee; it may leave the league and go off and play with teams outside. So with nations. Until the League is composed of representatives of *all* the nations, and until all believe that peace and reason are better than war and that might is not necessarily right, then the League must at times admit failure. Still the idea is a great one and in the fullness of time men everywhere may see that a real League of Nations is better than an armed and suspicious world.

EXERCISES

- 1 Name any leagues you know and state what is the reason for the existence of each
- 2 What is the aim of the League of Nations?
- 3 Name any social work done by the league since its formation.
- 4 What is the League of Nations Union?
- 5 How could the League of Nations be improved?

Note 1916-17 Lord Robert Cecil and others developed the idea of a League of Nations

1917 Ex-President Taft formed "The League to Enforce Peace"
8th January, 1918 President Wilson stated his Fourteen Points, one of which was the need to establish a League of Nations

28th April, 1919 Covenant of League adopted by full session of Peace Conference



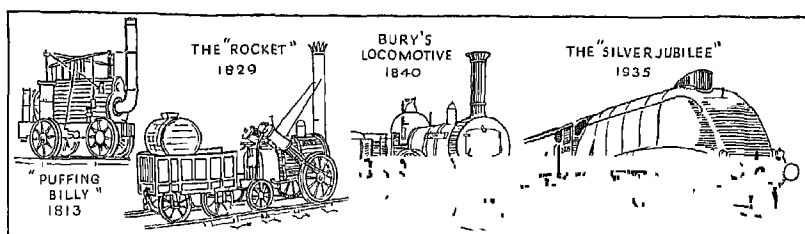
27. AFTER THE GREAT WAR

WE saw how great suffering followed the Napoleonic Wars. Similarly the nations of the world have found trials and tribulations after the Great War

In Britain there was much unemployment and poverty following the war years. Suffering was abated by the provision of unemployment pay to those out of work. After some years of depression it appears that more settled conditions lie ahead. It is difficult to foresee, however, what will happen. You who read this book will be able to write the next chapter from your own experiences.

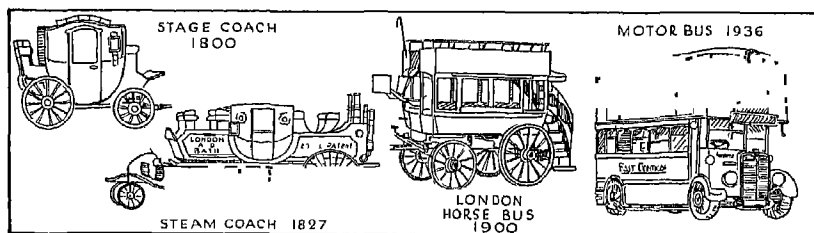
The war left Germany and Austria crushed and disarmed, without money, with little food, and with a large indemnity (compensation for injury to be paid to the victors). Italy, who had not received so many "plums" in the peace settlement, was weak, and Greece and Turkey were at daggers drawn over Smyrna, the new states of Central Europe made up of different nationalities were finding it difficult to settle down in harmony.

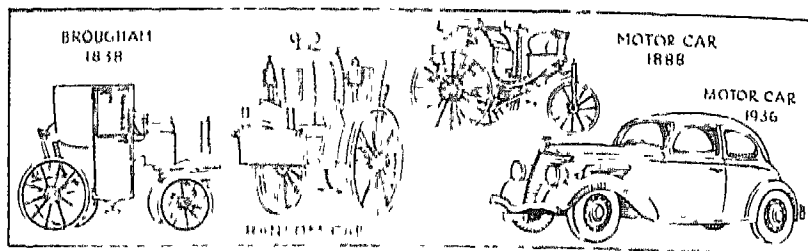
Then MUSSOLINI in Italy after years of patient organization, marched on Rome in 1922 with his "blackshirts" and caused the fall of the Government there. He was asked to form a government himself, and gradually set himself up as a *Dictator*. His followers are called *Fascists*, the name being derived from the Latin word *fascis* (the bundle of rods carried by the attendants on magistrates in Ancient Rome). The name symbolizes unity. Whether one agrees with



Mussolini or not it must be said that Italy as a nation is far more powerful as a result of its leader's rule. The course of history has without a doubt been altered by the advent of Fascists in Italy. The conquest of Abyssinia is one proof of this.

Almost parallel with the Fascist movement in Italy is that of the Nazi movement in Germany. After defeat in the Great War, Germany became a republic, with Ebert as its first President. In 1925, on the death of Ebert, Field-Marshal von Hindenburg, one of the most successful German generals, became President. He hoped to unite the moderates of all parties under a republican form of government. A wise statesman, Stresemann, began to steer the German nation to a better understanding with the rest of Europe. He died, however, in 1929, before his work was done. There was much distress in Germany at this time and a new political party called the *Nazis* under ADOLF HITLER came into being. Within a few years this party gained enormously in strength and influence, and in





1933 Hitler himself became Chancellor and "Leader" --the real Dictator of Germany. His main aim appears to be to build up a strong and united nation. Against the terms of the Peace Treaty he has formed a large army and air force and small but powerful navy.

Hopes had been expressed in the Peace Treaty that the nations of Europe would disarm, that is, gradually cut down their armies and navies until only sufficient was left for police duties. But this idea of DISARMAMENT has gone astray. The year 1937 opened with all the nations rearming. Statesmen in Britain, who had believed in the ideals of Disarmament, decided that alone to disarm would be folly. Some think that with all nations strong peace will be more secure; others see in the "mad race of armaments" the danger of a greater and more devastating war. It may be that nations will realize that to live together in peace will add the greatest happiness to the world.

Yet in another way the world is closer together than it ever was. Transport is more rapid, movement from country to country and across sea and ocean is safer. Telegraph-- both by wire, cable, and "wireless"--telephone, television already make it possible for news from any part of the world to be flashed around the globe. So men may some day achieve the idea of peace because each can help the other.

EXERCISES

1. Why were there changes in the systems of government in Russia, Italy, and Germany?
2. What is a Dictator? How does a Dictatorship differ from that of Democratic Government?
3. What events have made all peoples of the world more dependent upon one another?

LOCAL HISTORY

You will find history much more interesting if you try to discover how the town or district in which you live has been connected with events in the past. There are many ways in which you can do this, and here are a few suggestions—

(1) Conversations with older people. Talk to your parents and grandparents about what happened when they were children. You will be surprised at what you can learn. The author's great-grandfather described to him a celebration of the Battle of Waterloo, told how soldiers were obtained for the army in days gone by, and what factories were like more than a hundred years ago.

(2) Visits to churches. Churches illustrate many points of history. The way in which the church is built will probably give you a clue as to the date at which it was constructed. Tombstones, memorial stones and windows all have their lessons to teach.

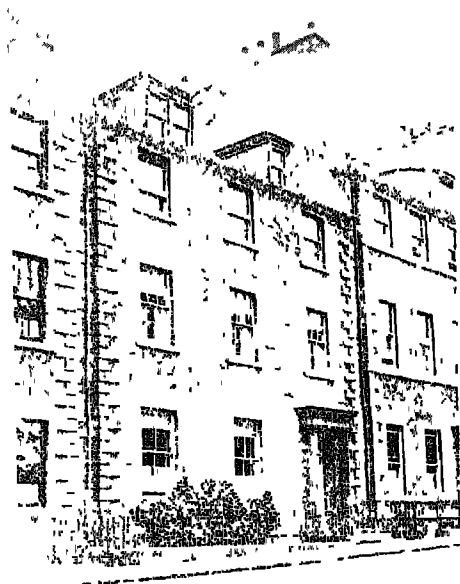
(3) Visits to local libraries and museums. Many old pictures and prints can be seen. Books published some years previously can be borrowed—those on local history are of great value.

(4) Study the names given to streets. In one town there are streets named Cecil Road and Burleigh Road; it is not strange to find that where now is a modern drapery store was once a Palace to which Queen Elizabeth often came. In another district there are streets named Kimberley, Mafeking, and Ladysmith, and on inquiry it was found that these were built at the close of the South African War. Names of fields, parks, and schools all probably can give you a clue to local history. In many schools "House" names are derived from historical figures who have lived in the district.

(5) The local paper is a source of local history. Ask the editor to allow you to look through old files in his office.

(6) Records are valuable. One local museum received a present the other day of which it is very proud. A man walked in and presented a scrap book which he had commenced sixty years ago. In it he had pasted local news and pictures regularly throughout his life. It formed a very interesting book of local history.

These are only a few examples of what you can do. History is a living subject, full of interest, a hobby worth cultivating and one which will help you to understand the world in which you live much better than if you took no notice of past events.



THE HOME OF SIR WALTER SCOTT IN HIS YOUTH,
25 GEORGE SQUARE, EDINBURGH

By courtesy of the L M S.



WINDSOR CASTLE FROM THE RIVER THAMES

Royal Palace of England, founded by William I, rebuilt and extended for Edward III Enlarged and renovated for George III, IV, and Victoria

By courtesy of the G W R

KINGS SINCE QUEEN VICTORIA

- EDWARD VII 1901-1910 King at 60 Travelled greatly, named the "Peacemaker."
- GEORGE V 1910-1936 A well-beloved King He was King during the Great War (1914-18)
- EDWARD VIII 1936 As Prince of Wales served in the Great War Visited many of the lands of the British Commonwealth
- GEORGE VI 1936 Crowned 12th May, 1937 Fought at Battle of Jutland

THE ROYAL HOUSE OF WINDSOR On 17th July, 1917, King George V declared that the family name of the Royal House of Great Britain and Ireland should be Windsor. Previously owing to the marriage of Queen Victoria to Prince Albert, the royal family belonged to the German family, known as the House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, itself a branch of the family of the dukes and kings of Saxony, known also as Wettin.

SOVEREIGNS FROM 1702-1901

ANNE	1702-1714
GEORGE I	1714-1727
GEORGE II	1727-1760
GEORGE III	1760-1820
GEORGE IV	1820-1830
WILLIAM IV	1830-1837
VICTORIA	1837-1901

SOME IMPORTANT DATES

Union of England and Scotland	1707
Riot Act passed	1715
South Sea Bubble	1720
Walpole, Prime Minister	1721
Battle of Dettingen	1743
Battle of Culloden	1746
Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle	1748
Calendar reformed	1752
Battle of Plassey	1757
Capture of Quebec	1759
Stamp Act	1765
Battle of Bunker's Hill	1775
Siege of Gibraltar	1779-1782
Independence of United States	1782
Independence of United States Acknowledged	1782
Peace of Versailles	1783
French Revolution commenced	1789
Battle of Nile	1798
Union of Great Britain and Ireland	1800

160 SOME IMPORTANT EVENTS IN OTHER NATIONS

Battle of Copenhagen	.	.	1801
Battle of Trafalgar	.	.	1805
Peninsular War began	.	.	1808
Battle of Waterloo	.	.	1815
Test and Corporation Acts repealed	.	.	1828
Reform Bill passed	.	.	1832
Slavery abolished	.	.	1833
Penny Post introduced	.	.	1839
Great Exhibition	.	.	1851
Crimean War	.	.	1854 1856
Indian Mutiny	.	.	1857
Second Reform Bill	.	.	1867
Queen Victoria, Empress of India	.	.	1876
Boer War	.	.	1899 1902
Australia becomes a Commonwealth	.	.	1901
Council Schools established	.	.	1901
Old Age Pensions	.	.	1908
National Health Insurance	.	.	1911
Great War	.	.	1914 1918

SOME IMPORTANT EVENTS IN OTHER NATIONS SINCE 1800

Congress of Vienna	1814	1815
Death of Napoleon	.	1821
Greek Independence	.	1829
Belgian Independence	.	1830
Second French Empire	.	1852
Kingdom of Italy	.	1860
American Civil War	.	1861-1865
Austro-Prussian War	.	1866
Franco-Prussian War	.	1870 1871
Russian Revolution	.	1917

SCIENTISTS AND INVENTORS

Name	Lived	Nationality	Famous for
William Harvey	1578-1657	English	Circulation of blood
Sir Isaac Newton	1642-1727	English	Mathematics and science— gravitation, spectrum
Hargreaves	1720-1778	English	Inventor of carder and spinning-jenny
James Watt	1736-1810	Scotch	Steam engine
Edward Jenner	1749-1823	English	Vaccination
Sir Humphry Davy	1778-1828	English	Safety-lamp in mines
George Stephenson	1781-1848	English	Inventor of locomotive
Michael Faraday	1791-1867	English	Magnetism and electricity, discovery leading to dynamo, etc
Charles Darwin	1809-1882	English	<i>Origin of Species</i> —theory of natural selection
Sir J. Y. Simpson	1811-1870	Scotch	Doctor who found use of chloroform
Henry Bessemer	1813-1898	English	Steel manufacture
Louis Pasteur	1822-1895	French	Discovered bacteria
William Thomson, Lord Kelvin	1824-1907	Irish	Electricity and heat, telegraphy
Lord Lister	1827-1912	English	Antiseptics in Surgery
Clerk Maxwell	1831-1879	Scotch	Electricity wave theory of light
Gottlieb Daimler	1834-1900	German	Motor car
W. K. Röntgen	1845-1923	German	X-rays
Graham Bell	1847-1922	Scotch	Telephone
Thomas A. Edison	1847-1931	American	Electric light, gramophone, self-regulating dynamo, etc
Sir A. Fleming	1849-	English	Thermionic valve made broadcasting possible
Wright Orville	1871, 1912	American	Aeroplane (with bro. Wilbur)
G. Marconi	1874-1937	Italian	Wireless telegraphy
John C. Baird	1888-	Scotch	Television

BRITISH MEN OF LETTERS

Name	Lived	Famous Books and Poems
Daniel Defoe	1661-1731	<i>Robinson Crusoe</i>
Jonathan Swift	1667-1745	<i>Gulliver's Travels</i>
Joseph Addison	1672-1719	Essays: "Sir Roger de Coverley"
Dr. Samuel Johnson	1709-1784	<i>Dictionary</i>
James Boswell	1740-1795	<i>Life of Johnson</i>
Thomas Gray	1716-1771	Poet: "Elegy written in a country churchyard," etc.
Adam Smith	1723-1790	<i>Wealth of Nations</i>
Oliver Goldsmith	1728-1774	<i>Year of Wakefield</i> (novel); "Deserted Village" (poem)
Robert Burns	1759-1796	National Scotch poet: "Ye banks and braes," etc.
William Wordsworth	1770-1850	Poet: many nature poems.
Sir Walter Scott	1771-1832	Novels and poems about historical events, <i>Talisman</i> , <i>Ivanhoe</i> , <i>Warley</i> , etc.
Charles Lamb	1775-1847	Essays and poems, <i>Tales from Shakespeare</i> (written by Lamb and his sister).
Lord Byron	1788-1824	Poet and fighter for Greek freedom
Percy Bysshe Shelley	1792-1822	Poet: "To a Skylark."
John Keats	1795-1821	Poet: "Ode to Nightingale," etc.
Thomas Hood	1798-1845	Poet: "The Song of the Shirt."
Lord Tennyson	1809-1892	Poet: "Morte d'Arthur", <i>Idylls of the King</i>
Robert Browning	1812-1889	Dramatic poems, "Pied Piper of Hamelin"
W. M. Thackeray	1811-1863	Historical novels, novels of society
Charles Dickens	1812-1870	Novels with a purpose: famous characters
"George Eliot"	1819-1880	Novelist <i>Silas Marner</i> , <i>Romola</i> (historical)
Thomas Hardy	1840-1928	Novels of peasant life (Wessex), poems.
Rudyard Kipling	1865-1936	Novelist, story writer, poet of India and modern civilization.

MORE STORIES ABOUT HISTORY

Book	Author	Publisher	Notes
<i>A Jacobite Exile</i> <i>Humphrey Bold</i>	G. A. Henry Herbert Strang	Blackie O. L. P.	The days of Marlborough Adventures—introduces Ad- miral Benbow
<i>The Cornet of the Horse</i> <i>The White Gauntlet</i> <i>With Marlborough to Malplaquet.</i>	G. A. Henry P. J. Brebner Herbert Strang	Blackie Cassell O. L. P.	Marlborough's Wars Tune of Queen Anne Queen Anne, Battle of Blen- heim, etc
<i>Robin the Prodigal</i> <i>Henry Esmond</i>	May Wynne Thackeray	Jarrols Various	Stories of Jacobite plot A fine story of Queen Anne's reign
<i>The Boy Captive in Canada</i>	M. P. Wells Smith	Sampson Low	Early American settlers and Indians
<i>An Escape from the Tower</i> <i>Rob Roy</i>	E. Marshall Sir Walter Scott	Seeley Various	Story of '15 Rebellion Time of 15 Rebellion
<i>The South Sea Bubble</i> <i>The Heart of Midlothian</i> <i>Bonnie Prince Charlie</i> <i>Captain Nancy</i>	W. Harrison Answorth Sir Walter Scott G. A. Henry D. Moore	Various Blackie Nisbet	Scotland about 1760
<i>The Young Clauray</i>	C. G. Lang	Smith Elder	A young girl's adventures in the '45 Rebellion
<i>The Bright Eyes of Danger.</i>	John Foster	Chambers	Another story of the '45 Re- bellion
<i>Waverley</i>	Sir Walter Scott	Various	A Westmorland lad's adven- ture in the '45
<i>For Bonnie Prince Charlie</i> <i>Muckle John</i> <i>Kidnapped</i> <i>Catriona</i> <i>Roger the Scout</i>	Esqott Lynn F. Watson Robert Louis Stevenson Robert Louis Stevenson Herbert Strang	Cassell Black Cassell Cassell Frowde	Scott's first novel—the '45 Rebellion Battle of Culloden and after Scotland, etc., 1751 Sequel to <i>Kidnapped</i> Beginning of Seven Years War in America
<i>With Wolfe in Canada</i> <i>The Scots of the Mighty</i> <i>The Last of the Mohicans</i>	G. A. Henry Gilbert Parker J. Fenimore Cooper	Blackie Methuen Dent, etc	Canada, 1755-59 North America, 1757 and on

MORE STORIES ABOUT HISTORY—(contd.)

Book	Author	Publisher	Notes
<i>One of Clive's Heroes</i>	Herbert Strang	Hodder & Stoughton	India 1754-57 Black Hole and Plassey
<i>With Frederick the Great</i>	G A Henty	Blackie	A young Scotsman serves Frederick
<i>The Little Huguenot</i>	Max Pemberton	Cassell	Forest of Fontamebleau, 1772
<i>The Virgians</i>	Thackeray	Various	Introduces many famous characters in period 1750-80
<i>Knights of the Road</i>	E Everett Green	Nelson	Prison reform and John Howard
<i>True to the Old Flag</i>	G A Henty	Blackie	American War of Independence
<i>A Tale of Two Cities</i>	Dickens	Various	Story of French Revolution
<i>The Scarlet Pimpernel and Other Stories</i>	Baroness Orczy	Hodder & Stoughton	A series of stories about an Englishman married to a French woman who rescues prisoners from the revolutionaries
<i>By Conduct and Courage</i>	G A Henty	Blackie	Introduces Nelson
<i>In Nelson's Days</i>	John G Rowe	Scott	Norfolk and the sea, 1792-1805
<i>Within a Year</i>	Frederick Harrison	S P C K.	England and the East, 1798-9
<i>From Powder-Monkey to Admiral</i>	W H G Kingston	O L P	A good story of sea adventure
<i>Brothers of the Fleet</i>	Lilian Pyke	Ward, Lock	England and Australia, 1787-8
<i>Kilgorman</i>	T B Reed	Nelson	Ireland, Paris, etc., 1793-97
<i>John Halfax, Gentleman</i>	D M Craik	Various	Tewkesbury, 1794-1834
<i>Uncle Bernac</i>	A. Conan Doyle	Smith Elder	Northern France (1803) introduces Napoleon
<i>The American Prisoner</i>	Eden Phillpotts	Methuen	Dartmoor Prison for French and American prisoners, 1814
<i>Boys of the Light Brigade</i>	Herbert Strang	Blackie	The Peninsular War
<i>With Wellington in Spain</i>	F S Brereton	Blackie	The Peninsular War
<i>Tom Cringle's Log</i>	Michael Scott	Sampson Low	West Indies, 1813
<i>On the Field of Waterloo</i>	F S Brereton	Blackie	Waterloo
<i>Jackanapes</i>	Mrs J H Ewing	Dent	A fine story beginning 1815
<i>Chippinge</i>	Stanley Weyman	Smith Elder	Reform in England
<i>A Hero of Sedan</i>	F S Brereton	Blackie	The Franco-Prussian War
<i>With Gordon to Khartoum</i>	E F Pollard	Blackie	The Story of Gordon
<i>One of the Fighting Scouts</i>	F S Brereton	Blackie	South African War

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